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ABSTRACT

Part III of the proceedings contains 12 presentations. They are: "The Role of Business Language in the Traditional Curriculum" (Michel Rocchi); "Foreign Languages for Business and the Professions Belong in the Liberal Arts" (Robert A. Kreiter); "How Much and How Far? Commercial French and the Student, Instructor, Administrator, and the Business World" (Maurice G. Elton); "Re-Educating the Language Educator for the Corporate Sector" (Michele J. Sabino); "Rationale, Structure, and Methodology of a French Language Program for American Bankers and Traders" (Irene Finel-Honigman); "A Corporate-Academic Partnership: Honeywell and the College of St. Thomas" (Mary Hess and Paul A. Schons); "Language/Culture Courses in Spanish, German, and French for Rockwell International" (Florence L. Masters); "Cross-Cultural Negotiation Strategies in the Language Classroom" (Keith Maurice); "Haragei: A Communicative Strategy for Japanese and Americans" (Donald McCreary); "German Meets American--Cultural Shock in the Boardroom" (Jack Troyanovich); "The Language Teacher as Cross-Cultural Trainer: Evaluation" (William Schwab); and "Cross-Cultural Training for Business: A Consultant's Primer" (Susan Rippert Davila). (MSE)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE 1984 EMU CONFERENCE ON FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART III:

TAKING THE HUMANITIES TO BUSINESS

Geoffrey M. Voght, Ed.

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THE ROLE OF BUSINESS LANGUAGE IN THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM

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The Role of Business Language in the Traditional Curriculum

In 1974, my institution, the University of Puget Sound, in the state of Washington, received a $250,000 grant from the Lilly Foundation to undertake a major revision of its academic offerings. Each department was given the task to build from zero, a new curriculum and to design an academically challenging path for its students.

Faced with the mammoth task of revising our entire departmental curriculum, my colleagues and I examined all avenues and studied the curricular demands of the discipline as well as the students' needs, and the realities of the employment situation. At the end of the review, we had moved away from a total literary traditional major as the only offering. We installed a new inter-disciplinary major in International Affairs as our focal core and while keeping a traditional major, we complemented it with another major which combines the study of two modern languages and literatures in a comparative approach. There were several innovations introduced at the same time, but the main one was the creation of a core course for our International Affairs major. This course in commercial language was to be taught on a regular basis in French, German and Spanish.

In the French component, we had to decide whether the course would be specific; one which prepares students for the international exams administered by the Paris Chamber of Commerce for the "Certificat pratique de français commercial et économique" or the more advanced "Diplôme supérieur de Français des Affaires"; or a more general course which serves the needs

of liberal arts students who are facing stiff competition in the job market and are searching for an edge over their monolingual business major counterparts, as well as acquiring a more marketable skill. We intended the course to be a solid introduction to contemporary civilization for the intermediate level student assuming no previous knowledge of business. The other non-language components of the International Affairs major being international economy, international politics, and international business, influenced the design of the course. We wanted a challenging and stimulating cultural/business course which emphasizes the various political and commercial institutions and socio-economic aspects of the contemporary target country, while still presenting the historical framework of its economy and commercial practices. In sum, a truly contemporary course yet an approachable one for students.

The course we developed for the three main languages is titled: Foreign Language Studies in Commerce and the Media; it is taught in the target language for four semester hours. Teacher preparation was the issue to tackle as no one in the department was versed in the international business world, although some of us had experience prior to teaching with private firms. We chose to approach the situation from both ends, that is tailor the course to the existing expertise, while allowing the faculty some time for slight re-training in the various areas.

Eventually the course was conceived as the ideal forum to introduce students to contemporary culture and civilization aspects that we can never fully explore in the traditional one-semester culture courses. It also allowed us a grammar review beyond the advanced grammar course or as a complement to it. And finally it added a fine companion to the

composition course. The assignments in the business course involved a grammar review, contemporary culture with a commercial bent, and a good dose of writing. All these overlap and interplay in a refreshing way for both faculty and students. In fact, the course functioned well as a preparatory one for our study-abroad programs.

The course functions similarly in French, German and Spanish. Students are exposed to a historical framework of the target country with emphasis on its economic factors. They have numerous exercises and correspondence involving a new vocabulary; and they deal with the foreign press in addition to their text and are expected to deliver oral and written reviews of newspapers and magazine articles. All the course requirements aim to improve all the linguistic skills.

In French it was not difficult to depart from the Feudal system of the Middle Ages and study its economic structure, to arrive at the Age of Louis XIV and study Colbert's system of finance, and end up with Jean Monnet's dream of a European community. It was very natural then to study France as it exists in the larger political and economic European community. The course deals with the infrastructure of the French economy: agriculture, industry, trade, and transportation; then studies the support services: banking, taxation, advertising, real estate; and finally it deals with business matters: correspondence, employment, nationalization, unionism, companies, etc. The course draws heavily upon current events affecting the target country. In French, for example, we followed the Presidential election of Giscard and Mitterand; the European Parliamentary election; the legislative elections; the plight of the French franc; current strikes and protests; movies and concerts either in the press

or on actual tour.

Students choose their own themes for the press article reviews. This netted successful results as a variety of issues were pursued: from concentration on certain French regions, to the fashion world; from concentration on the everyday business world of nationalized companies, to the leisure activities of the average French; from concentration on the religious aspects in history and now, to the habits of the everyday French consumer. These varied topics culminated in a videotape session where pairs of students taped a short session of about five minutes in an area of their choice. Some did a French newscast complete with news headlines, sports and weather forecasts. Others did an advertisement for a product designed for a French audience, while others did mock interviews with French celebrities or comic approaches of Saturday Night Live in Paris instead of New York. All in all, students were having fun practicing what they were learning and viewing the entire class's tape as the group ate popcorn and enjoyed watching themselves and their classmates on screen.

In the area of writing, the weekly press reviews were complemented by grammar review capsules which reviewed certain verb tenses needed for specific assignments. For example, prior to a unit on advertising in the press, students reviewed the infinitive and imperative tenses as official language for French slogans and publicity. There is a constant emphasis on the immediate practice. In other words, when the real estate section is under study, students are asked to design real estate ads for apartments to rent or houses for sale in places like the French Riviera or Paris' suburb Neuilly. In this manner, they internalize the vocabulary of the section more readily. Some even came up with elaborate visual

designs to accompany their ads.

The oral comprehension part was continuously stressed also by frequent dictation which employed the specialized vocabulary in the dual aim of memorizing and comprehending. Certain units allowed for group interaction as the class was divided into the work force organized in unions and the management sector responding to the unions' demands, while an eager press corps recorded the exchange. All these exercises required planning but very little material and always resulted in a surprisingly successful event. Students still come back a semester later to borrow the class videotape to play it back to family or friends, or they still remember when they played the role of Marie Antoinette facing the hungry Parisian mob. The burden of the preparation is mostly on the student's shoulders and the faculty provides only the initial impetus.

As for letter writing, each student at the conclusion of the correspondence unit which occurs early on in the semester, was to write to Francophone companies asking for specific information. They are to indicate the purpose of their letter and ask for help in their project. The emphasis was on creativity in the selection of the chosen companies, and we usually received a few surprises. But most of all, the students were astonished at the rate of replies they received from French institutions and were very pleased to receive substantial documentation. In fact, most of them keep showing us letters they received well after the semester is over.

The course as conceived does not purport to train students in a specialized area of the business sector. Rather, it presents an overview of the political, economic and social aspects of the target language. It

does pave the way for a broad preparation in diverse careers in the international arena. The course complements the other interdisciplinary components very well. It is a joy to witness the glee in students' eyes as they proudly report that in their politics class a unit on the French unions has covered an area they were the only students in the class to follow in more depth and comprehension. Faculty members from the other disciplines are eager to have our students from International Affairs in their classes. They seem to be able to follow the classes' content with more interest, submit more interesting projects, and write with better skills on the average than those who are uniquely trained in only one of the disciplines. The course has been a great motivating factor in the pursuit of language fluency as its newness in course content and approach facilitates the increase of knowledge and appreciation of the target language. It is a unique course in the sense that it does not impose an obligatory historical sequence or the usual volume of grammar exercises or compositions. It allows faculty members the freedom to emphasize their own areas of interest and strength. It allows the flexibility to deal with current events on the international scene. It even goes further to allow the introduction of the countries closely associated with the target language. In the case of Spanish, one may deal with Latin America; for France, Canada and the Francophone countries are ideally suited; and for Germany, Austria and the Germanic-speaking countries afford a good contrast. In this manner, mini-units on dialects or a comparative approach may be easily integrated into the course.

The choice of textbooks was a difficult issue in 1976 but the myriad of available choices is already flooding the market. A select bibliography

is attached for this purpose. However, an important part of whatever text is used should be the current press of the target country. Group subscriptions are available with many journals and newspapers. Library copies may be set aside for the semester through special arrangements with the librarian.

In sum, the Business Language course could easily adapt to the needs of any curriculum traditional or specialized. It can be taught by interested faculty, not necessarily specialists in the business sense of the word. It can draw on the different strengths of various faculty members: those who are good with audio-visuals and those with ease at eliciting oral responses from students; those with interest in a historical approach and those with a grammar axe to grind. In fact, it could be co-taught or team-taught in large language departments with the proper doses of faculty expertise.

Instead of being considered a special interest course like the case of the methods course, a commercial/business language course could serve as a catalyst for renewed enthusiasm in language study; it could introduce new vigor and add new dimensions not included in the traditional curriculum. Instead of being viewed as anathema for serious language learning or being relegated to the status of training secretarial skills, it can function as a highly intellectual venture into the fabric of the target culture. It can provide students with a comparative values approach by which they can juxtapose their own economic system with a foreign model and through the medium of another language, they can bridge the gap between the high culture of the civilization courses and the everyday realities of their fellow beings in the target culture. But most of all--it is fun to teach.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS BELONG IN THE LIBERAL ARTS

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Foreign Languages for Business and the Professions Belong in the Liberal Arts

This paper will explore the place of foreign language courses for special purposes - in this case for business (and the professions) - within a liberal arts curriculum. I shall attempt to defend their inclusion among the regular offerings of a liberal arts department, explain the strengths derived from such inclusion, and describe in general terms how such courses can be constituted. I'm of course not opposed to foreign language learning, wherever it may take place; my point here will be that "applied work", properly conceived, is not beyond the bounds of the liberal arts, and that such a "home" promotes quality and enrollments across the curriculum.

I now teach courses in French language, French literature, and commercial French, but my basic background, and the credentials which got me my job are in the humanities literature area. I have taught courses ranging from the medieval epic to the contemporary novel, language courses at all levels, civilization and culture. My doctoral thesis was on the novels of Crébillon fils, my master's thesis treated "Hallucinatory Vision in the 'Oeuvres de Jeunesse' of Flaubert". I love the humanities, their concern with form, with values, with expression across time and cultural boundaries. Their study has value in and of itself. Moreover, in the words of

the National Commission on Excellence in Education, they "...enrich daily life, help maintain civility, and develop a sense of community..." (p. 10).

But, at the same time, I'm a fairly pragmatic American, and a product of a nation which has always lived according to a utilitarian ideal. My eye is immediately attracted to newspaper title headings like "Your Money" (Sylvia Porter, of course): "A Need for Foreign Language Studies". (Dear woman!) Or, in a recent Smithsonian, the suggestion that if I buy certain materials I can work on my own and "Speak like a diplomat!" Or the ads I hear on the radio that tell me I can listen to a special cassette tape on my way to work and learn, without effort, a foreign language: "You'll always know what you're saying," they promise, "because an instant translation is provided."

There is a need for our product - foreign language proficiency - ably demonstrated in these ads, and in national studies such as those of two recent presidential commissions, Strength Through Wisdom and A Nation at Risk, and in reports of the Twentieth Century Fund (Making the Grade) and the Business-Higher Education Forum (America's Competitive Challenge), among many others. Moreover the public supports our work: A 1979 survey conducted by the University of Michigan Research Center revealed that "half of all Americans wished they could

speak a foreign language and three-quarters believed languages should be taught as early as the elementary school... 90 per cent agreed that languages should be taught in junior or senior high, and 47 per cent believed they should be required."[1]

Given our national bent for pragmatism, our tendency as Americans when we see a problem (in this case the need for citizens more proficient in foreign languages), we like to find a quick, cheap fix for it. Our aim is often financial (increased sales abroad) or for status (affirm America's position in the world). Our favorite method is called "scientific", which in our culture usually means "technological" when applied to education. We used to buy language labs to solve the langage learning crisis. Now we're buying interactive video computers and world satellite disks.

As we meet the crisis through curriculum planning we must design programs that truly meet broad needs and that permit our students to adapt to multiple future needs in an increasingly pluralistic world. The liberal arts have traditionally provided our students with broad backgrounds and skills which have permitted them to function in a changing environment. If the liberal arts can infuse our work in foreign languages for business and the professions they will touch a wider public, and give reality to their full mission, a mission

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as seen, for example, by Alfred North Whitehead in The Aims of Education:

"The antithesis between a technical and a liberal education is fallacious. There can be no adequate technical education which is not liberal, and no liberal education which is not technical: that is, no education which does not impart both technique and intellectual vision. In simpler language, education should turn out the pupil with something he knows well and something he can do well. This intimate union of practice and theory aids both."[2]

My colleague, R. Eugene Rice of the Sociology Department of the University of the Pacific, speaking last February in San Francisco at the annual meeting of the Association of American Colleges, analyzed the dilemma many of us in the Liberal Arts must face: On one side the pressure for recognition in our fields, which has brought us to produce graduate-style courses in an undergraduate curriculum, on the other, the "career oriented student and parents anxious about that first job." He concludes that "The press for career relevance can also remind us again of the importance of good work. Creativework is at the heart of the liberal arts, it is not ancillary. The historic shakers of the social science disciplines would remind us that work is our strongest tie to human community."[3]

In an assessment Gene has recently completed of eleven grant projects by a number of Western universities

and colleges with funding help from the Northwest Area Foundation under the title "Balancing Career Preparation and Liberal Learning", he notes the defensive attitude of many humanities faculty to career-related programs; we often view involvemennt in them as "selling out" to narrow professionalism (which to us, as he explains, means also a selling out or lowering of our own professional image). He pleads for a broader view:

"Frequently neglected in the discussion of the career preparation/liberal learning issue is the central role that productive work plays in the values, culture, and history represented by the liberal arts. The leading spokespersons for most of the liberal arts disciplines would join Marx, Freud, and Calvin in reminding us that work is our strongest tie to the human community. They would also echo the words of Albert Camus: 'Without work all life goes rotten. But when work is soulless, life stifles and dies.'."[4]

In this assessment, Gene notes that in career related programs curricular "linking strategies" are often less threatening than "integrative strategies". That is, faculty resist less - feel less threatened by - functions which complement existing programs, such as student internships, than by actual participation in career and life planning as part of the regular

curriculum.[5] "Linking" is what we have undertaken in our own university: creation of a cross-disciplinary program in Foreign Languages/Economics which encourages double majors, but permits a concentration in either field. The concentration in the foreign language includes the four basic beginning and intermediate language courses, plus a minimum of one advanced course, usually commercial French, German or Japanese. We are working on similar formal links with our School of Business and Public Administration. In French, we can provide two advanced courses in the French of Business and Economics, leading to the Certificat Pratique and Diplôme Supérieur examinations of the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris, thus providing some sort of "certification for work" within the traditional French major, as well as incentives for advanced study for other students who otherwise might well not have continued their French.

It seems that departments in other Califonia universities and colleges are following similar models, expanding their field, bringing in new areas, adding to the fundamentals of their discipline. I am a member of the Foreign Language Liaison Committee of the Articulation Council of California. A subcommittee working under Pauline Rice of Imperial Valley College has been studying the role of business related courses in California universities.

55% of the private universities have such courses - many of them new offerings. Most of these courses meet university and/or departmental requirements. Most help satisfy requirements for a major in foreign languages. What is the content of such courses? That is the subject of a study our committee is about to undertake, and I can provide no general information. Instead, I would like to present, in reaction to a statement of Secretary of Education Bell, the model - within the liberal arts - that we have developed at the University of the Pacific.

Speaking in October last year to a joint conference of the American Council on Education and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada he condemned the "pragmatic vocationalism and careerism in higher education." He said he was "concerned about the trend toward earlier and ever earlier entry of college students into job-related specialization," often at the expense of courses in the arts and humanities.[6] The call for a return to the basics, for return to more conventional curricula, might appear to be in opposition to the theme of today's conference. I prefer to see it as a warning against the exaggerated pragmatism which can be a part of the American psyche, and which I gave examples of earlier.

I hold that work in foreign languages for the

professions need not - indeed, must not - be narrowly oriented. It can and must maintain its bases in the liberal arts. As I said, our courses in the French of Business and Economics are an integral part of our rather traditional major curriculum; they serve our majors in the liberal arts as well as students from other programs. They can be justified within a liberal arts program, first by the fact that they are complementary to other advanced courses in the curriculum. For most students the commercial French segment of their work represents from 1/6 to 1/3 of their advanced work, and in addition to the commercial language-civilization courses, majors are required for the other courses of their program, to choose, like our traditional majors, electives which cover French literature and/or civilization from the Renaissance through the twentieth century in either period or survey formats. Second, they are appropriate because of their nature, their emphasis on advanced language skills, and as courses in current civilization and culture, as opportunities for examination of comparative value systems. Moreover, these courses bring together the knowledge and abilities acquired in all previous work for problem solving within an expanded perspective where economics and commerce serve the liberal arts which in turn is their handmaiden.

Let me now treat specifically three areas, traditional in the humanities, which are covered in my courses: language, civilization and comparative values.

1. Language. The study and use of language has been basic to the humanities since the foundation of the medieval universities. Skill and grace in communication is an aim of all our courses; the quality of that communication is said to be a measure of the quality of the individual (Is "style the man"?). And success as producer, seller, buyer, consumer, regulator is based in great part on the quality of human contacts. To understand, to be well understood, we must know our partner's language, culture, institutions, prejudices, favored formulae, superstitions. Tastes, needs, problems (hierarchy, financing, import regulations, market, etc.) count in all exchanges. The "well-rounded" person the liberal arts has traditionally formed must have this knowledge, these skills in the last fifth of the twentieth century. Moreover, use of language in functional situations - to solve problems - may be a better learning method than those of the traditional composition course. In commercial French we aim language at the problem to be resolved: a letter demanding payment, a phone call to trace a lost shipment, an interview to get a job - rather than at a grammar problem. Addressing onself to

another in a concrete situation requires judgement about tone, style, formulae, degree of intimacy, desire to please, wish for rapid action, etc. Using language for a purpose promotes, in fact, better acquisition of language, as my students attest. They say their use of the language improves faster than in a composition course. In turn, their confidence with the language, and their greater understanding of the culture they are dealing with is an incentive which brings them to continue study of the foreign language in more traditional frameworks.

2. Civilization and comparative values. Study of the civilization of contemporary France is a standard part of the curriculum in most foreign language departments. By addiing a business, economics perspective to this study we are not subtracting from the students' appreciation of "High Culture", but adding to it. Knowledge of the role of the worker in French society since the revolution adds to our understanding of Hugo and Zola; it also explains some of the dynamics behind wildcat strikes, general strikes, various pressures for social change which cannot be understood if judged, as Americans often judge them, from their knowledge about the Teamsters or the AFL/CIO. Adequate knowledge and "appreciation" can inform and improve our dealings with individuals and organizations

which are the product of the culture we study and of its past. Such study also adds to tolerance and understanding of people and situations - heightens maturity and objectivity. Events, positions, political pressures can be explained in part by the past. And those who will be most effective dealing with the future are those who have gained the added flexibility, analytical ability, power of objective judgement conferred by understanding. These powers in turn make us, I hold, more able in our own culture, which we can view as it were, from the outside. I thus argue for an active language component within a commercial foreign language course, a language component which promotes the ability to solve problems in terms of a carefully and knowledgeably analyzed situation. I argue too for a strong civilization component in such a course, a component which will include political, economic and social history, and which will call upon students to use their knowledge and understanding of the fine arts as expression of a culture and of universal human experience to expand their own experience and better communicate with others.

Yesterday, in another communication, Professor Jules Blum of Stetson University gave an excellent example of strong general preparation for students working in career tracks when he recounted the experiences of his students of Russian on a visit

to the Ministry of Commerce in Moscow. They were asked to name their favorite Russian novelist. They were able to respond and to discuss the man's works. Human communication was established, transcending the situation, and favorable to any commercial discussion which might ensue. Professor Blum wisely remarked that commerce includes evenings at the ballet too. Respect and empathy do permit deeper communication.

In an address to the American Council on Education in October 1982 Sven Groennings, Director of the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education of the U.S. Department of Education called the movement outwards toward greater internationalization in business studies one of the "beachheads in international education". He said that such internationalization is attractive to our universities (a marketing judgement) because:

"1. It can improve quality by enhancing the relevance and thereby the appeal to students of what is being learned.

2. Where general education is being pressured to become more consolidated, interdisciplinary, and integrative, internationalization provides a thrust for coherence as well as a larger sense of direction

3. It offers potential linkage to the professional schools, at a time when they are attracting undergraduates. The link can enhance the 'solidity' and refresh the content of international studies. In addition, the professional schools are well served by

related liberal arts resources.

4. It offers an approach for the revitalization of liberal arts faculty."[7]

We're dealing once again with American pragmatism. We (in foreign languages) will have more students. Our work will be more "relevant", quality and breadth of programs will be heightened. But there's more. He also says: "There is potential, in this international perspective, for infusing new meaning into liberal education. Implications for curriculum could include issues of how to treat the implicit systemic approaches, comparative components, foreign language study, future problems orientations, the enduring values in new contexts, and cross-cultural understanding as well as interethnic relations in our own society."

Such an education is not the "careerism" of which Secretary Bell spoke. It does succeed in joining work and the liberal arts, or, from Camus' perspective, work to life, soul to work. By avoiding "narrow vocationalism" we will have made our courses stronger, and prepared our students better - within the liberal arts.

Notes

1. Focus, ETS, 1983, p. 6.

2. Quoted by R. Eugene Rice, Strategies for Relating Career Preparation and Liberal Learning (A Northwest Area Foundation Report, 1983), p. 40.

3. Reported in California Higher Education (February, 1984), p. 14.

4. R. Eugene Rice, Strategies..., p. 35.

5. R. Eugene Rice, Strategies..., p. 35.

6. Reported in The Chronicle of Higher Education.(October 19, 1983).

7. "Beachheads in International Education", Profession 83, Modern Language Association, p. 42.

HOW MUCH AND HOW FAR? COMMERCIAL FRENCH AND THE STUDENT, INSTUCTOR, ADMINISTRATOR, AND THE BUSINESS WORLD

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The recent emerging interest in, and the request for languages for business in schools around the nation has meant that we are, in the academic sector, for the most part, on virgin territory and searching for guidance, direction, and encouragement. Your presence here at this conference confirms this and I am sure we all fall into one or more of these categories. We have come to learn from those who, by some stroke of fortune or bad luck, have had the distinction of being pioneers. We hope to profit from their experience.

This is not a paper on pedagogy. A wide range of pedagogical applications are being adequately and expertly covered elsewhere in this conference. My primary concern is to address, based on my experience, a number of issues in four vital areas, and to propose some solutions. Those areas involve the student, the instructor of commercial French, the educational administrator, and the world of business. My remarks are presented within the context of what I believe to be a serious question confronting the academic world today, namely, how far should we be going in the direction of professionalism within the confines of a humanities curriculum?

Some background is in order at this point so that my remarks may be kept in perspective for I believe that geographical and economic conditions may well have an impact on the effective teaching of languages

for business and the professions than say the traditional instruction for literature. We are imparting a skill that can easily and readily be put to practical use. One quick illustration: A top student of mine is invited to attend the monthly luncheon of the French-American Chamber of Commerce in Dallas. He or she is very likely to meet with a number of French businessmen representing a wide range of commercial interests.

Southern Methodist University, where I have taught these past twenty years, is located in Dallas, Texas, popularly known as part of the sun-belt. The general north Texas region has enjoyed tremendous economic growth over the past few years and the trend is continuing. The French presence has also been growing steadily. It started well over ten years ago with the arrival in the Dallas - Forth Worth area of Aerospatiale Helicopter Corporation, the American subsidiary of Aerospatiale in France. 1979 saw the arrival of the French Trade Commission, the French Government Tourist Office, and the French-American Chamber of Commerce. In November 1983, Foods and Wines From France, known as SOPEXA in France, opened a regional office in Dallas to help promote French food products in Texas. New, authentic French restaurants, French bakeries, specialty shops, even Le Notre of Paris are of course the visible signs of increasing French interest in Texas. But there is much more in the not-so-visible business sector such as investments, banking, real estate, small manufacturing, computer software, market representatives, and pre-marketing surveys.

My introduction to, and involvement in Commercial French has evolved over a fairly long period of time and has been autodidactic in nature. My first business experience dates back to 1948 when I had the responsibility for handling bills of lading and other documents in the Shipping and Forwarding Department of Thomas Cook's Travel Agency in London, England. More recently, a landmark was reached when I obtained my Diplome superieur de francais des affaires from the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris (1980). Before and since that time, I have been active in translating, interpreting, and consulting on contemporary France for Americans involved in business with France, and with French nationals arriving in this country. So in the broadest interpretation of the remark, I practice what I teach.

I currently teach three levels of commercial French. 1) A senior-level undergraduate course, offered in the regular Foreign Language, or French Major degree program in our Humanities Division; 2) an evening, informal, non-credit course in the SMU Division of Continuing Education; 3) a summer workshop for teachers and business personnel, offered through the regular summer school division. The aggregate number of times I have taught these various courses is ten, so I am basing my assessment on an acceptable ratable sampling of some 120 students. A log has been kept of the students' majors and the adults' business connections. This has provided valuable data on a wide range of interests, career projections, and current professional employment, much of which involves minor to major interaction with the French busines world.

One of our very first concerns in teaching languages for business should be, how much can we expect of our young undergraduate students? A major concern is that at the university level, the wide divergence in majors and career objectives - to say nothing of language preparation - means that the language for the business segment of the curriculum is, in many respects, a buckshot approach. The students in question have yet to enter the job market, furthermore, they have little if any idea of what they will be doing, let alone the type of company with which they will be associated. By the time employment is found, very likely practice and skills in the major language will be seriously impaired. These same reservations do not hold true for the older students in my workshop, or for those who take the adult education course in business French. They are, for the most part, already in the business world and my sense is that they enroll in this type of course in order to learn what the state of the art is at a given point in time. These students are often quick learners, motivated and so my primary role has been to provide information and materials. If their French is fairly fluent, they will have received, by the end of the course, a large measure of momentum and direction from me. A Chinese proverb helps explain the conception: "If you give a man a fish, you feed him for a day; if you teach him how to fish, you feed him for life."

Undergraduate students, however, present varying degrees of problems. Many seem anxious to get into an international business career for it certainly seems exciting and adventuresome. But few have any idea of it entails. They <u>blanche</u> when it is emphasized that such a career requires a bilingual command of languages, and a close

familiarity with the cultural, social, economic, and political factors of the country whose language they hope to use. In response to this need, our Humanities Division will offer an Area Studies Program in French and will reactivate a senior-level course on the civilization of contemporary France taught in French. The combination of French literature, French civilization, commercial French, suggested courses in related fields and the school of business will be instrumental in making this a strong and professional program.

A vast difference in attitude and motivation exists between the two groups of students - the undergraduates and the adults. This fact prevents me from being lulled into a false sense of complacency with regard to levels of attainment. Furthermore, closely connected as I am with the world of business, I am very much aware of the levels of competency that must be reached if our students intend to compete for the most rewarding jobs. Only so much can be imparted to them over a period of a semester. In an attempt to provide students with as much know-how and information upon which they can draw, every endeavor is made to teach them where to look. In addition to up-to-date hand-out materials, four texts are used though it is obvious that such a large amount of concentrated material cannot be covered adequately. Students are admonished not to sell their books at the end of the course but rather to keep them for life.

Much has been written and discussed regarding pedagogy for the student; but what about the teaching staff. What constitutes the ideal

instructor for a course in business language? One is reminded of a few lines from one of Shakespeare's plays (Twelfth Night). " ... some men are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them." There is the suspicion in academic circles that when it comes to the search for possible instructors for commercial French within departments, the latter sentiment expressed in the lines above will be true. Some will have the task thrust upon them and the grudge will be borne for ever. Despite this, there are nevertheless a great number of faculty members who have accepted the challenge to teach courses in language for business. Far too often, this has been with little or no prior training or previous business experience.

Aware as colleagues are of my academic training and background, I am often asked how it was that I got into the teaching of business French, where I received my training, and whether I would be willing to share what I know. In response to the last question, I mention that I do conduct a summer workshop designed for teachers and others interested in perfecting their skills in this area. With regard to the first two questions, my discovery of the importance of commercial French was the outgrowth of a very simple situation. Some ten years ago, between 1974 and 1978, following a sabbatical leave in France, I became president of the local Alliance Francaise, a fledgling organization in Dallas at that time. It also happened that I received and fielded many of the incoming calls to the Alliance. The inquiries ranged from the usual touristic - type question to more sophisticated ones dealing with the then political and economic situation in France. For some unknown reason, many Americans consider the Alliance Francaise to be an official French

government agency, which it is not, and therefore the source of unlimited information on France. So, given in those days the absence of any official French representation in Dallas, I found myself to be the unwitting purveyor of information on France, or things French. Thanks to a recent trip to France and research on contemporary French civilization, I had access to a large body of information, plus the fact that I knew where to look in the first place. I must emphasize that every attempt was made not to let this activity interfere with my regular academic commitments; in fact, in a number of instances, it assisted me in further research and I became the recipient of a large amount of documentary material which, under normal circumstances, would have been difficult to obtain. Last, but certainly important, it brought me into contact with a wide range of French nationals in various professions. The above illustrates very clearly that what I teach is based on actual experience and the perceived needs of a metropolitan area such as the Dallas - Fort Worth region. I imagine things would have been much different had I been in a small college town, isolated from the mainstream of international business activity. Without the stimulus of nearby international commerce, one must have the impression of teaching languages for business as if in a vacuum and far removed from the real world of foreign trade.

To what level of training prior to, or during the course, should the instructor aspire? If one is truly isolated and has no nearby colleagues for help, the simplest solution is to get one's hands on as many texts, published states-side or in France, and to read them from

cover to cover, doing all the exercises and assignments. If no help has arrived by that time, then it is up to one to choose a text and to plunge into the first course. It is extremely important part of ongoing training to be a subscriber to the French press, newspaper or periodical, and to read the economic news on a regular basis. This will reinforce and introduce new vocabulary and certainly keep one up to date on the changing commercial scene. The most readily available, fairly inexpensive newspaper in French is France Amerique, published weekly in New York.[1]

Text books are a matter of personal choice and must meet also the demands of the course and level. However, for the purposes of self-training and the start of a basic personal library, I suggest the five volumes published by Hachette in the series Le francais et la profession, under the general editorship of Max Dany. They are

Le français de la banque (1978)

Le français des hommes d'affaires (1975)

Le français du secrétariat commercial (1978)

Le français de l'hôtellerie et du tourisme (1980)

Le français des relations internationales (1983)

Thanks to occasional visits to France, press subscriptions, and frequent contact with French nationals, I am able to expound upon

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[1] France Amérique, published weekly by France Amérique, P.O. Box 415, 1556 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10028.

textual subjects, citing personal knowledge or first hand experience which can make dry, cold, and uninspiring facts, figures or information come alive. I also have the reputation of never throwing anything away, but the material in question pertains primarily to commercial French and France today. The reason is quite simple. I cannot afford expensive dictionaries; in their place I have established a collection of documents, pamphlets, brochures, reports, that cover different fields and sectors. Much of the material in my possession has been free and readily available. Whenever I am in France, especially Paris, I visit as many trade shows as possible. Entrance to many of these is free to foreign visitors upon presentation of a business card and passport. I have brought back to Dallas literally pounds of materials which I have sorted and filed. Much of the material supplements the standard texts and is invaluable in helping with translations, especially English to French. And the material can be found almost anywhere. For instance, in January 1983, I happened to be in Lausanne, Switzerland, with a few hours to spare before my train to Paris; I walked into the lobby of the local branch of the Union of Swiss Banks and picked up about fifteen different pamphlets and booklets, in French, dealing entirely with banking. One item was a dictionary in three languages of banking terminology.

A strong recommendation to the instructor and to the home institution is that every attempt be made to financially support and to encourage attendance at a training session, seminar, or workshop that will combine the subject of commercial French with teaching techniques.

Any such program, offered overseas, will be of incalulable value to all concerned. Quite a number of years ago when I first wanted to teach commercial French, based on the practical experience I had accumulated, I did not have the approval of my department because of a simple lack of credibility. To my colleagues, it was incomprehensible that a Ph.D. in languages and literature could teach business French. At the first opportunity which presented itself, I passed the examination for the Diplome superieur de francais des affaires given by the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris. There has never been another word said regarding my qualifications. There was even greater silence when a copy of the examination I had taken was passed around for inspection.

Another extremely important question is, how far can the instructor venture into the world of work, in order to practice what is being taught, yet doing this without violating academic regulations or sacrificing other research. This must be a matter of choice for one will have to weigh carefully the advantages and disadvantages. Much depends upon how serious and committed the instructor is. I am, by nature, a gregarious individual, naturally inquisitive, and vitally interested in everything around me. I try to explain myself in terms of Rabelais and Montaigne; the rabelaisian idea of a well-filled mind, and Montaigne's idea of a well-formed intellect. As an active member of the local chapter of the French-American Chamber of Commerce, I receive regularly important information contained within an excellent quarterly publication. The monthly luncheons and speakers afford one

the opportunity to interact with both American and French businessmen. On April 1, the Franco-American business community attended an official reception, hosted by the Mayor of Dallas, to welcome Madame Edith Cresson, the French Minister for Foreign Trade and Tourism.

I do not turn down translating or interpreting assignments, unless there is a serious conflict in time with my academic duties. It is extremely important to inform the departmental chair and the Dean that one is minimally involved in such outside activities, and that this is an essential component of one's on-going training and an excellent opportunity to hone one's linguistic skills. This extra-mural activity should be undertaken in the spirit of adventure. As was said earlier, it is one of the few academic disciplines in which one can actually go out and practice what one has been teaching.

Far too often, Arts and Sciences administrations have hesitated to approve courses that appeared to venture outside the traditional boundaries or sacred domain of the humanities. We have been no stranger to that situation. However, as a private university, we do enjoy a large measure of freedom to institute courses as we deem necessary and without the time frame delay usually present in state supported schools which require lengthy review of any curriculum changes, from the originating department to final approval by a state board. As early as 1970, a need was seen to broaden our offerings in the language department to meet the needs of students who felt there should be a viable alternative to a straight language major. And so

we moved in the direction of a new Applied Studies Major. Courses included languages for business, translation and interpreting, and contemporary civilization courses in several language disciplines. The new degree program was approved in 1973. During 1974, a change in the top administration occurred and the department was informed that nothing but a strict humanities curriculum would be permitted within foreign languages. The motto invoked was: "A sterling university. not a service university." The order has changed again and so we are back to where we were ten years ago. The present administration is concerned with quality education, one which will adequately equip our students both mentally and professionally for the world of tomorrow. Our foreign language department has done much to meet the needs of students in their desire for a more practical application of their language skills, whilst not losing sight of the humanistic heritage and allegiance. So it is that in my commercial French class, I do as much as I can to point out that a teachnical and specialized vocabulary imparts a vast amount of knowledge and is a springboard to a better understanding of another peoples' conception of conducting business. I find it difficult to to teach commercial French without frequently commenting on the country's current economic, social, and political picture as a backdrop to the conduct of commercial activity. I doubt that within the context of the humanities, such a reasoned approach can be faulted. Contrary to what some administrators may have thought in our particular case, courses in languages for business were not instituted in order to reverse a drop in language enrollments, though there is no doubt it has helped maintain a consistent interest in languages at a time when there

has been no university language requirement. It has provided a viable alternative at a time when there is general disaffection with the traditional literature major. I do not condone this disaffection but try to reverse it whenever possible.

Finally, I address the business sector. It is last because, in the final analysis, the businessman is the customer, the consumer of our product, namely and hopefully, the well-formed and informed, linguistically competent internationalist of tomorrow. Will Mr. Businessman or the corporate giant really appreciate what they are getting? Much national attention has been directed towards America's woeful neglect of, and performance in foreign languages, and how this is having a serious effect on our international commerce and balance of payments. Has the business sector in general seen the danger? In the meantime, we are left to conjecture as to how much longer it will be before American companies in general wake up and how far down the chart America will slip in its balance of payments deficit. Criticism is also coming from other quarters, and closer to the board room. I read recently a number of articles dealing with the subject of decision-making at the executive level in multinational corporations. I can best summarize the many concerns expressed by numerous top executives by a single quote from a 1978 article by David P. Anderson, a senior Vice President with RepublicBank of Dallas. He writes:

"The American international business manager has not been trained to live in this environment of uncertainty. The academic

process is, for most, technically oriented toward the science of management. It is a training in fact that has proved to be the best in the world. But it is not a training which prepares the individual to understand the political, economic and social complexities of today's world."[2]

Some months ago I was shocked when my attention was drawn to a government document entitled: How to Build an Export Business: An International Marketing Guide for the Minority-Owned Firm.[3] In Chapter One, entitled "What to do when you get inquiries from abroad," there is a sub-section:

"What to do with letters in a foreign language. You have several options.

1. File it. This may be your wisest choice, particularly if you do not plan a deep involvement in export. Chances are the inquiry won't lead to business. A serious customer would write in English.

2. Send the letter back with a note that your firm only corresponds in English. If the foreigner is interested, he will have his original letter translated and send it back.

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[2]David P. Anderson, "Some Thoughts on the American International Corporate Manager's Changing Global Perception." The International Essays for Business Decision Makers. Vol. 111, The Center for International Business, Dallas. 1978. p. 112

[3]How To Build an Export Business: An International Marketing Guide for the Minority-Owned Firm. U.S. Department of COmmerce. No Date. pp. 63-64.

3. Translate the letter. More about this on page 64."

On page 64, there is a chapter heading entitled: "What if letters are in a foreign language." with the following paragraph:

"Most Americans can't read or write another language. So what to do if you get inquiries in Spanish, French, Italian, or German - the major commercial languages abroad?"

At this point, there is a repeat of the suggestion given on the previous page, plus the following additional advice:

"If you're interested in developing your exports, letters can be translated, but don't do it yourself. You may be able to puzzle out a letter for yourself, but you're likely to miss an important word or two. Here are some suggestions:

1) Check with your bank. If it has an international department, it will be able - and willing - to translate your letter.

2) Contact the U.S. Department of COmmerce's District Office closest to you. Its international business specialist may suggest a free source...."

I am convinced one of those free sources in Dallas is our foreign language department. My university is probably not alone when it comes to the high number of language related calls it receives during any given year. I have kept a log these past few months and have noticed a rather substantial drop in calls. This is due to the recent directive given our secretarial staff who now inform callers

that we are not a free translation agency and will no longer advise callers as to the appropriate French name for a new pet poodle. But in decidely business-related calls, the requests to us are for the most part based on ignorance regarding the demands of language and the general level of competence on the part of our language students and majors at the university level. In far too many instances, these calls are directed at the university as a source of free or low-cost translation work, but with the caller's client eventually being billed full fee. Last November, a prominent law firm in Dallas requested the services of a student of French who, for ten Dollars an hour, could interpret for a deposition in French. I ended up doing the interpreting myself - for a much higher fee - and can therefore state quite categorically that no student of ours could have handled such an assignment. Furthermore, it would have been most difficult even for my colleagues. Had it not been for my deep involvement in commercial French and my complete familiarity with the vocabulary of banking and investments, I too would have experienced great difficulty.

I propose now what I consider to be a viable solution which I trust will satisfy all sectors or constituents. I am addressing the French interests in particular, but other language disciplines could find parallel solutions. I propose that in the teaching of commercial French at the college and university level, we use as our guide and goal the current examinations given by the Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris and, if feasible, a portion of the C.C.I.P. curriculum. The examinations have an established reputation and represent a very high standard. There is the criticism that the C.C.I.P.

material is concerned only with international business within Metropolitan France and tends therefore to ignore other Francophone countries such as Canada, Belgium, Switzerland, to say nothing of French speaking North Africa. I am sure these matters could be addressed later and incorporated into a special set of examinations and curriculum. Given the Paris Chamber's interest in, and presence at this conference. I would believe it to be entirely appropriate for the C.C.I.P. to investigate the matter of commercial language ties with other Francophone countries.

The foregoing idea is presented here because this is a national and international forum and our colleagues across the country are looking to us for ideas, help, suggestions, and alternatives; I certainly include myself among this group. In my business French course, I have, for the most part, based my approach and examinations on the C.C.I.P. materials and on my own personal experience in taking the examination in Paris. I feel, however, that it is time we came to a consensus at the national level so that our students will know exactly what is expected of them, not only in the classroom, but when they actually enter the job market. The instructors will feel confident about what thet are teaching and in their approach to the subject. Academic administrators will be relieved and happy to learn that their language departments are following the lead of other major universities. And the business world will have a norm by which to judge the product.

Let me make it clear that I am not suggesting that we give blanket approval or accept these examinations on blind faith. My

proposal requires further study at the national level. We have our own language organizations in which to center the debate, to draw up plans, and to implement the decisions. We have the recent example of Oral Proficiency Testing which has demonstrated what can be done at the national level through the joint cooperation of ACTFL, ETS, several government agencies, and the U.S. Department of Education. As a result, we now have available a valuable oral proficiency assessment tool that will have a salutory impact on foreign language teaching in this nation.

I am hopeful that the various AAT organizations can also work independently along these lines inasmuch as their languages for business and the professions are not identical and may follow geographic and social considerations. I fully realize that this will not be an easy task, but I firmly believe that it must be done so that, sooner or later, we will all be the beneficiaries. Action is also needed now because we in academe, members of an elite vanguard of commercial language teachers, fall nevertheless into a sort of no-man's land. We straddle two academic stools, and we are neither fish nor fowl because we are teaching a subject that it is not entirely within the strict realm of the humanities although as I have said earlier, we can argue that we are at the same time imparting a certain amount of knowledge that incorporates culture and civilization. In the eyes of the corporate executives, we are certainly not businessmen, and our institutions consider us as non-scholars.

The immediate criticism will concern itself with whether or not what is being proposed can feasibly fit into a one semester course situation. I doubt it when I consider that the majority of our students are carrying an average course load of fifteen semester hours. However, the very existence of a qualifying examination that has international acceptance and for which one can duly prepare will, I strongly believe, do wonders for our educational goals. We must make sure that in this particular area, the humanities curriculum notwithstanding, our students attain a high standard of professional competency in languages for business and the professions even if it will require two semesters of study. I trust that as we pursue the matter of national endorsement of the C.C.I.P. curriculum and examinations, we will not have set our sights too high.

RE-EDUCATING THE LANGUAGE EDUCATOR FOR THE CORPORATE SECTOR

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RE-EDUCATING THE LANGUAGE EDUCATOR FOR THE CORPORATE SECTOR

Whether academic content specialists are prepared to teach their specialties in the corporate sector has been the subject of hot debate for quite some time. Both corporate trainers and academics can readily define who they are and what they do and there is an impressive body of literature within each of those areas to support their self-definitions. At the heart of this whole issue, however, is not how they define their own roles, but how they perceive and define each other's roles. Ironically, both groups identify themselves as professional educators, but because of the constraints and resources that are peculiar to each setting each group has difficulty accepting the ability of the other to make the crossover from one setting to the other. Academics who wish to enter the private sector as consultants or trainers must earn the credibility of their colleagues in industry by first looking at the differences between the two and then by acquiring some of the skills utilized by educators within corporate educational settings.

Essentially, the differences center around three critical areas: the purpose of the training, the needs of the client group and the delivery system.

In higher education, the training program, especially at the undergraduate level, is basically generic with broad program objectives that emphasize career preparation and entry to the marketplace. Most programs in higher education are

highly prescriptive and based upon requirements laid down by some governing body or regulatory agency. So, the needs of the client group (student body) are rarely considered in terms of program or even individual course content. Students are simply told what they must take and what number of courses they must complete in order to receive a degree or certificate in their chosen programs. Generally, the delivery system is based upon a content model in which the individual course instructor determines what knowledge or skill the client (student) needs to acquire, and then arranges the material into logical units, selects a means for transmittal and develops a plan for presentation in sequence. In addition, instructors in higher education have the luxury of time on their sides because they have anywhere from six to fourteen weeks to relay the information the students must have. Rarely do content specialists in higher education have any familiarity with or practice in adult education methods, let alone have any knowledge of adult psychology or the needs of adult students. So, the delivery system in higher education, with some notable exceptions, follows a traditional, normally conservative, pedagogical model.

On the other hand, training programs in industry are generally descriptive and based upon the expressed or stated needs of both the corporation and the employees. The objectives are usually more specific because of the needs of the client group and the programs and courses and generally planned around developing competencies that can be observed,

measured or counted upon almost immediately. Most training programs utilize a process model with the trainer acting as a facilitator who involves the learners in a process that includes diagnosing needs, formulating program objectives (content) that satisfy the stated or expressed needs, developing a mechanism for mutual planning and designing a pattern of learning experiences utilizing techniques and materials suitable to the client group. Corporate trainers must be extraordinarily responsive to the needs of the corporation when planning their programs and assure management that their employees will not be giving up an inordinate amount of company time for classroom time. So, training programs must be highly compressed, results-oriented programs delivered by instructors who are sensitive to the psychological and learning needs of adult students who are being paid to improve or acquire a skill that is specific to their present or future position within the company.

Fortunately, language educators already possess many of the requisite skills needed to become successful trainers in industry. Of necessity, language educators must have become intimately familiar with another set of cultural values and mindsets in order to effectively utilize and understand the language which they have been trained to teach. They must have acquired a whole new vocabulary, a different approach to life and living, and the willingness to adapt to people and situations that they may never have experienced before. It is this very adaptability, this willingness to

accept individuals by seeing them in their own frame of reference that makes language educators strong candidates for becoming successful trainers in the corporate sector. After all, moving from academia to industry is only another form of crossing cultures.

Another factor that language educators have in their favor is their ability to deal with individual differences, look at each learner as unique and develop an individualized program of instruction that matches both needs and abilities. Many language educators have already developed delivery systems that are specific to the present-time orientation of adult learning needs and utilize methods and materials that give the learners exactly what they can use effectively upon completion of the program.

Even though language educators may have a head start on other academics for corssing over into the corporate sector, there are certain philosophical constructs of corporate training that academics must be willing to adopt in order to be accepted. First, academics must become knowledgeable about the psychological differences between adult learners and other learner groups:

--they must familiarize themselves with the variety of methodological approaches used in teaching adults

--they must place a high priority on personal needs and interests of the learner

--they must learn to develop instructional strategies that are task-oriented and that include active learner participation

--they must devise instructional activities that provide successful experiences in completing a task or in demonstrating a skill in a new situation.

Secondly, academics must be willing to adopt the mindset of the local training community by becoming familiar with the emphasis or thrust of local business and by becoming as knowledgeable about the training field as possible through any combination of the following:

--active participation in local chapters of national professional organizations such as ASTD

--membership in national organizations emphasizing training and development and human resource development

--familiarity with professional journals and publications in training and human resource development

--direct, informal contact with trainers in the local area

--acquisition of an understanding of the exact skills, knowledge and attitudes needed by trainers to carry out their tasks

--identification of local training needs
and human resource development interests

Finally, and most importantly, academics must be willing to accept professional trainers as colleagues, as educators working in a setting that is different from their own.

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RATIONALE, STRUCTURE AND METHODOLOGY OF A FRENCH LANGUAGE PROGRAM FOR AMERICAN BANKERS AND TRADERS

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Rationale, Structure and Methodology of a French Language Program for American Bankers and Traders

The third annual Conference on Foreign Languages for Business and the Professions sponsored by Eastern Michigan University brought into focus the need to establish a broad based dialogue between the academic and corporate sectors. Language programs must not only integrate commercial and economic semantics, translation and stylistics skills, but also develop concepts in cross-cultural training geared toward the requisites of corporate communication. Many universities are presently creating or expanding courses and degree programs in commercial foreign languages, however the corporate and industrial sector has barely began to tap the academic market. Large institutions, like American Motors, Honeywell, and Rockwell, either send their staff for intensive language training to the site of their foreign subsidiaries or have contractual arrangements with local universities to provide short term or special purpose programs.

The integration of an academic structure within an institution, whose primary function is to meet the educational goals of one professional group in terms of language, translation, terminology and cultural content remains a highly innovative concept. This type of program was established in 1980 at the

Credit Lyonnais Bank, New York City. It is still the only in-house academic program offered in a foreign bank in the New York area. This type of structure can serve as a model for American based foreign institutions or American companies with extensive foreign contacts and prospects.

Rationale:

The expansion of the New York financial community and incursion of multinational corporations, branches of foreign banks and foreign investments in 1979-1980 created a renewed need in the American market for specialized language skills and increased awareness of foreign business concepts and methods. In order to be assimilated into the American business community and to provide employment and advancement opportunities for American professionals, the New York Branch of Credit Lyonnais (at present the 5th largest bank in the world) recognized the necessity to establish an in-house academic program. Previous attempts to use outside teaching facilities or to send management to Interlingua or Berlitz schools had created scheduling and logistical problems, a lack of proper monitoring of attendence and progress and remained limited to basic language courses.

The objective in turning to the academic sector was to provide a structured in-house program where one person would assume the responsabilities of administrating, teaching and monitoring the program entirely under the auspices of the bank.

The professor or director of the program would be accountable to the institution and commited to provide an academic course of study geared to the needs and requirements of the bank's employees. American bankers (which includes loan officers, traders, accountants, commercial personnel) would receive [illegible] training in basic, intermediate and advance language skills as well as inter/intra cultural awareness of French banking terminology, history and attitudinal concepts. The program and the professor would serve as a liaison between American personnel and the French corporate structure in which it sought to integrate itself.

The program provides instruction, books, audiovisual materials free of charge to all bank staff. From its inception in 1980, French and American management have encouraged its progress and development. The support services and outstanding cooperation provided by personnel and American senior management have allowed it to flourish these past four years.

Structure:

Five courses are offered each semester to instruct the participants in oral and written communication skills according to their level of proficiency. Courses meet two hours a week during lunch hours (12:00-1:00, 1:00-2:00) and special classes or tutorials are given outside of regular business hours (8:30-9:30a.m., 5:00-6:00p.m.). This schedule creates the least interference with the staff's business commitments.

Courses at all levels, including basic language courses

are supplemented by business vocabulary and exercises in business syntax and usage. Intermediate courses (grammar and conversation) focus on verbal skills and incorporate business, financial and commercial topics and materials. Each semester one advanced translation or discussion group course and one course in either socio-economic themes in French literature, French banking history or semantics is offered. Translation courses which require students to have at least an intermediate level of proficiency preferably a B.A. in French, focus on translation of economic, financial, commercial articles and a comparative study of French and English banking terms. The advanced courses alternate on a semester basis.

The program sequence allows a student to reach an intermediate level of proficiency after three or four semesters, which consists of recognition of business terms (written and oral), reading ability of cables and telecommunications, form letters, or basic documentation and an understanding of topical instructions. Participants can remain in the program as many semesters as they wish. Those who come in as beginners remain on the average one to three semesters; advance students often come back each semester for different courses. Placement is decided upon, and solely left to the discretion of the professor.

Management recommends and encourages participation in the program. Many members of American management have taken part

in the program (after the rank of Vice President they become entitled to private one or two hour tutorials). In the corporate setting the concept of private lessons is dictated by rank rather than academic need or standing. Private tutorials are a privilege allotted to members of upper management. Each participant, regardless of rank in evaluated in a progress report. These reports (sent to their superior and incorporated into permanent personnel files) appraise attitude, effort, commitment and level of achievement in the course. A semester evaluation, based on two grades, one for general performance and one for the Final Examination or term project is written at the end of each semester.

Classes are given in a sunny, congenial conference room, a true transposition of the "salle universitaire dans l'entreprise", equipped with blackboard, a large round table and comfortable armchairs. This enclosed modular environment is highly conducive to teaching and verbal interaction. Class size is limited to eight participants. The physical layout and the small size of the classes allows each member of the program to receive intensive individual attention and to interact actively within the group. Groups are lively, and well coordinated.

The program is also a source of information on academic, pedagogical and cultural activities in the New York area. The French and American contingent are made aware of the panoply of cultural, theatrical and lecture events at the Maison Fran-

caise of Columbia, New York University, the French Institute at New York University and the Alliance Francaise.

The professor's teaching load is fourteen to fifteen hours a week. Responsabilities include choosing materials, enrollment, reports, budget and planning the courses.

Such a program can also be geared to meet the needs of specific departments within the bank through a lecture format. In Fall 1983 and Spring 1984, lectures on visual identification of key phrases, recurrent terms and specialized constructs were given for the benefit of the Money Transfer department. Vocabulary as well as essential verbs (prier, "veuillez", virer, avoir, transmettre) were examined and translated, within their context of telecommunications and in-house documentation forms.

Methodology:

The curriculum is designed to teach understanding and conceptualization of the French language as a means for conveying specialized business, and financial information. French and American cross-cultural communication is a vital component of the program. Participants re-examine the functions and concepts of a French bank within the broader perspective of its historical origins, image and sematic development.

All courses are conducted entirely in French. Emphasis is placed on responding, presenting pertinent materials, analysis of such materials and discussion of economic, financial or

or banking issues.

The Beginner's courses use a traditional text: Yvone Lenard's Parole et Pensee (its clear concise presentation - all in French - allows supplementary material to be inserted within each lesson). Even on a beginner's level, technical vocabulary can be introduced. A special class was set up for four foreign exchange traders in Fall 1983. The immediately learned "Je suis un cambiste", "Je suis un courtier", the words encours (position), marche (market), cambisme (trading), change (foreign exchange), comptabilite (accounting), bilan (balance sheet), agent de change (stock market trader), devise (currency). When first gourp verbs were explained instead of conjugating "diner" or "danser", they learned "discuter", effectuer", "traiter", "comptabiliser", "virer". Their first composition was not of their room but of the office: ("la salle des cambistes").

In an Intermediate conversation class hypothetical business situations are set up: dialogues or mini-dramatizations on a business lunch with a client, a phone call from Paris, exchange of currency, an investment situation (whereas a client has to invest a large inheritance). Whenever possible in-house documentation is used: letter of credit form, blank balance sheets, evaluation forms. These documents, either written in French or in both languages, acquaint the student with the vocabulary and also use the materials he is already familiar with in his bus-

ness context.

In the Advanced courses on banking history and semantics, emphasis is placed on lexicological and etymological study. Different lexicons are examined in both general and specialized areas (i.e. Christiane Dosse: Pour comprendre un bilan en anglais; Dictionnaire Commercial de l'Academie de Sciences; Delmas, Anderia: Business Dictionary, Canadian Office de la langue francaise: Lexique de la bourse et du commerce des valeurs mobilieres. Etymological study presents this vocabulary study in a more colorful and interesting fashion, providing insights into the development of European banking terms. These courses also explore the problems and pitfalls of "franglais", English financial jargon (put, call, Tom, Spot, Foward), and the complexities of translating or not translating specific "Wall Street" instruments and functions, i.e. bridge financing; swap; standby credit; marketing; manager; leader; management.

This type of translation course using materials from various publications can be geared entirely toward translation and terminological exercises; or can also be used to give the students the opportunity to write and make oral presentations on different banking topics. In one course papers were written on "La publicite bancaire francaise"; "Les travaux de controle de gestion"; "L'Evolution de Correspondant Banking Division"; "Swift: une langue universelle dans un reseau bancaire (Society for Worldwide Interbank Financial Telecommunications".

The format and methodology of private tutorials are geared toward management who usually already have a solid grasp of French grammar, syntax and terminology. They are interested in perfecting their written and verbal skills and their ability to successfully present professional material to their French collegues or engage in dialogue with their French peers in the New York branch. Each week the professor receives the latest copy of Expansion, Nouvel Economist, the monthly issues of Banque, as well as other specialized brochures, articles and materials. These publications are culled and articles of specific interest are distributed as basis for discussion, semantic and stylistic studies and cross-cultural dialogue. Each session is conducted entirely in French. Errors are jotted down, corrected and explained, vocabulary lists are established and stylistic exercises are given to reinforce the material covered during the session. Sample articles are "Interview avec Martin Feldstein" Nouvel Economist, Oct. 1983; "Les Cowboys de Wall Street" Expansion, Juin 1983; "Banque d'Aujourd'hui: Quelques Reflexions" Banque, Janvier 1984. The articles focus on French-American relations or on a historical, sociological or even literary perspective. For a foreign exchange trader, the course may provide the means to increase vocabulary in explaining "le Marche de Swaps".

Phonetic improvement can also take place in this format. Audiovisual reinforcement is available through tapes and

cassettes. Once or twice a semester films (through FACSEA) are shown to the members of the program. These films can be traditional cultural films: Le Medecin Malgre lui, or On Ne Badine Pas Avec l'Amour, or if possible a full length commercial film on a theme tailored to banking: Le Sucre (1978) on a commodities fraud; L'Argent des Autres (1978) on an inheritance embezzlement scheme.

Literature courses: Image of the Banker; Socio-Economic Themes in the Novel; began as an experiment in interdisciplinary possibilities and gradually through research and seminars with a group of students well versed in literature, developped into a series of thematic and textual studies which included interpretative readings of the Noveau Romans' structures of transactionality, economic, commercial and financial constructs in the 19th Century French Novel, comparative studies of financial themes in the French and American novel. These courses attract a group of participants who all have advanced degrees in French and who left secondary level teaching to pursue a business career. These classes are very well attended and often initiate stimulating intellectual discourse. The subject of the banker in Balzac, in Flaubert or Zola; the dialectics of American protestant versus French catholic economic and financial ideology are topics of debate that have produced original written term projects.

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Texts and Materials:

This type of program requires commercial French texts to supplement the grammatical materials and the publications. Although today there are numerous excellent commercial texts on the market, they present the entire spectrum of commercial activity, while this program must focus on one aspect. In Le Francais de la Banque (Dany, Rey) published by Hachette in 1978, atleast one third of the text deals with client-teller, or individual account situations which are not relevant to a corporate bank. The documents, although broad in scope and clearly presented, are outdated and at times even incorrect. The idea of immediacy, of constant need to update presents a problem for the academic (who is used to shifts in critical methodology occuring over a period of years, rather than months). In banking, finance or technology, entire sets of facts, forms, methods, and policies can undergo radical changes within one or two years. In 1981, after the Socialist election in France and the advent of nationalization, new rules, regulations, changes in accounting procedures, came into effect. The incursion of advanced technology, "l'informatique", requiring specialized vocabulary introduces a dimension ignored by most texts written before 1981. Mustapha K. Benouis: Le Francais Economique et Commercial, (1982) is helpful in its clear presentation and emphasis on vacabulary, translation of banking and trading terms, operations, names of corporations, logos. It serves

as a useful aid for the advanced and as an introduction to basic banking structures for the intermediate groups.

The Role of the Academic in the Corporate Structure:

The key elements to a successful relationship for the academic in the corporate environment is flexibility and cooperation. Upon entering the corporate world, there is an initial "Alice in Wonderland" sensation. The role is new and not clearly defined. Unlike the university where there are three layers (administrators, professors, and students) the corporate hierachy is extremely complex and multilayered. In a foreign institution this hierachal structure is further complicated by lateral levels with two sets of management: a native contingent and a permanent stable American contingent.

The professor must function within, yet remain entirely independant of this hierarchy. When a member of the institution enters the classroom, he or she is judged only according to his or her ability to speak, respond and write in French. The banker, trader or staff person undergoes a shift in attitudinal orientation. The classroom has its own demands and tensions (quizz, the final examination, the oral presentation) but they are not based on tangible quantative results, but rather on qualitative intellectual achievement. The classroom is also a meeting place for it allows persons from different areas

and ranks to interact in a peer group defined solely by linguistic rather than business or financial aptitude.

The professor must in turn adapt and develop according to the needs of the institution. The "student" in this environment is an adult often with years of expertise in his given field. This level of proficiency must be respected and whenever possible transferred to the new learning situation. When a banker can describe his own functions or methods in a foreign language, he is relaxed with the subject matter and therefore more prone to assimilate and learn new semantic and syntactical materials. The professor and the corporate specialist must create a dialogue in which each one learns and responds.

An in-house, free of charge program can easily be taken for granted, appreciated but not really valued. How to avoid this, and how to impose academic discipline and rules in the corporation depends on constant changes in curriculum, offering new, innovative courses and strict adherance to pre-established structures. Classes only meet at the given time; they can be dropped only by notifying the professor and after the first three weeks, by a written memorandum signed by their superior. Final examinations must be taken and grades reported. The program's rules must impress upon the participants the seriousness of intent.

The primary problem is absenteeism. Their work must come first, however they are encouraged to devote their time to learning French. Therefore the program often has to define itself in terms of priorities. The professor learns to work within and

understand this new set of emergencies, problems and deadlines. In February 1980, when the silver crisis erupted on Wall Street, I was beginning to explain the subjunctive that very afternoon. I had insisted that the students show up because the material was difficult and required close attention. Clearly no one came. I was quite bewildered, until I was gently explained that indeed in the perspective of a financial institution the silver crisis took priority over the subjunctive.

The issue of academic freedom has been scrupulously respected. In order to maintain interest, the professor's research should be reoriented toward the field in question. Banking provided a rich and versatile terrain with extensive historical, literary and etymological potential. Research in literature can be reoriented toward socio-historic and literary reflections of foreign exchange, traders, bankers, financiers and usurers. Thematic methodology can also be applied to a study of the financial press or the history of the institution. Those courses require an interdisciplinary perspective and a re-evaluation of bibliographical material. The program can develop into a resource center for technical, lexicological as well as cultural information.

Pedagogical skills can be transferred, from the academic to the corporate classroom. In the more subtle research and analytic domain, reorientation rather than retraining is called for.

The professor remains a separate entity. Knowledgeable and able to provide linguistic, stylistic or cultural information at all levels, he or she is still an academic.

Given an excellent ongoing relationship with personnel and management, and a sound knowledge of the procedures of the institution, teaching such a program can be an exciting and innovative challenge.

A CORPORATE-ACADEMIC PARTNERSHIP: HONEYWELL AND THE COLLEGE OF ST. THOMAS

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A CORPORATE-ACADEMIC PARTNERSHIP: HONEYWELL AND THE COLLEGE OF ST. THOMAS

by
Mary Hess
and
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INTRODUCTION

At the same period that Honeywell Corporation had completed a Needs Assessment in the area of International Development for Honeywell personnel and was beginning to develop a training program to meet the needs identified, the College of St. Thomas had launched a major program leading to internationalization of its academic offerings. In discussions between Honeywell and St. Thomas representatives it became clear that many of the developmental needs identified by the corporation and the college could be profitably addressed through cooperative programs.

In the following report the Needs Assessment and Program Development of the Corporate Program are described under the heading, "The Perspective of Honeywell" by Mary Hess, Program Manager at Honeywell. A description of the college's development of International Programs and the entry into a cooperative program with Honeywell are discussed under the heading, "The Perspective of the College", by Paul A. Schons, Chairman of the Department of Foreign Languages.

THE PERSPECTIVE OF HONEYWELL

Honeywell is a large multinational company dedicated to advanced technology and offering systems and services in the fields of information processing, automation and controls. With revenues in excess of $5.5 billion, Honeywell has 97,000 employees and is located in approximately 30 countries. A growing international business accounts for an estimated 30-40% of company revenue.

As Honeywell's international business has matured, it has become increasingly important to have managers and technical professionals who are adequately prepared to deal with a complex international environment. In June 1981, a task team was commissioned to examine the intercultural and language training needs in Honeywell Control Systems. The mission of the task team was to conduct a needs analysis for language and intercultural training, to develop a strategy for future training, and to pilot an intercultural business communication workshop. We will examine first the findings of the needs analysis and the resulting formation of an international training and development area, and second, the partnership with the College of St. Thomas and the resulting benefits in effectively developing a more internationally-oriented workforce.

NEEDS ANALYSIS

DATA GATHERING

Data was gathered in three ways:

- verbal interviews conducted with 25 Honeywell senior managers
- written survey conducted with:
  - Foreign Service Employees (227 sent, 150 returned)
  - those who travel internationally (183 sent, 143 returned)
  - those in international business but no travel (160 sent, 86 returned)
- informal survey of 15 multinational corporations

The structured, verbal interviews with senior managers focused on organizational issues: corporate goals, objectives, philosophy, business needs and cross-cultural successes and failures.

The written survey assessed cross-cultural attitudes, perceptions, experiences, and language/intercultural skills. With assistance from divisional employee relations staff, the task team was able to select employees from all divisions in Honeywell Control Systems. All Honeywell U.S. foreign service employees dating back to 1978 were sent questionnaires.

Separate surveys were designed for each of the three groups (FSEs, those who travel internationally, and those involved in international business with no travel). These surveys focused on U.S. employees. Future study will address the needs of non-U.S. groups. A description of the results follows.

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FOREIGN SERVICE EMPLOYERS

Honeywell typically has 150-180 American employees abroad at any time, serving in various techical, supervisory and managerial functions in approximately 30 countries. The majority of these employees are assigned to French, German, Spanish, and Italian-speaking nations. A small but increasing number of Americans are serving on assignments in the Middle East and the Far East.

A U.S. "Foreign Service Employee" (FSE) is any employee assigned to a position outside the U.S.A. for a specified period of time, typically for one to five years.

The survey was sent to all FSEs currently abroad, plus a sizable number of repatriated employees. One hundred fifty completed questionnaires out of a total survey population of 227.

Half of those who responded have been with the company more than 10 years. Managers, directors, or executives make up 57% of the respondents, with the remaining 43% defined as "professional/technical." The split between technical and managerial points up some interesting divisions in the findings.

Findings

One major theme which surfaced from the analysis is so pervasive it can be stated in terms of a mandate: <u>There is a universally perceived need for cross-cultural training</u>. All future policy formulation which affects foreign service employees must center around this need.

Data which support this finding include:

- 77% would like to have a better understanding of how business is conducted in other countries
- 50% report cultural differences as the <u>primary</u> barrier to achieving effective business relations with foreign nationals
- 42% found that language differences had a negative effect on their ability to achieve business objectives (particularly high for finance and engineering)
- 60% wanted more preparation than they received prior to their assignment
- 33% are aware of difficulty in business negotiations with people from other cultures
- 84% felt Honeywell did <u>not</u> do a good job of encouraging intercultural understanding among its employees

- 40% felt working with people from other countries was essential for their career development (higher for executives/mangers than professional technical)
- Only 18% said Honeywell is seen as an interculturally aware company by foreigners with whom they had worked although--
- 61% said Honeywell had a good image worldwide as an international corporation
- 57% were dissatisfied with how Honeywell used their skills when they returned to the U.S. (professional technical and middle managers were most dissatisfied)

In addition, the needs assessment raised several concerns that need to be addressed by management:

1. Technological know-how is not sufficient for doing business abroad. Employees need communication and managerial skills which will increase their ability to effectively compete in the international market.

2. Interpersonal communication is a major form of doing business. Cross-cultural communication skills are vital as technological expertise in a foreign environment. Foreign values, attitudes, and social systems markedly affect business practices.

3. Training for spouses and family is as important as training for the employee. The adjustment of the entire family has an impact on how successful the FSE assignment will be.

4. A career plan system must be fully supported by management so that repatriated FSEs will be able to utilize their skills developed while abroad.

5. In order for adequate preparation to occur, selection of FSEs must be made earlier and in a more systematic way. Frequently FSEs have only 4-6 weeks notice of their new assignment which makes advance preparation almost impossible. Earlier identification of FSEs can greatly aid this process.

Recommendations for Training for FSEs

While these issues are broadly based and have applicability to the Company as a whole, concrete programs can be put in place which will begin to address the specific needs and concerns of the FSEs. To adequately support FSE assignments, three separate functions are necessary. These are:

- Predeparture preparation and training
- Support and counseling during the foreign assignment
- Repatriation assistance

- Predeparture Training

It is a well-recognized fact that predeparture training reduces the overall cost of an assignment because it facilitates quicker integration into the work environment. Also, training has been proven to prevent premature return and can result in significant cost savings.

Recently, the Foreign Service Administration Department has upgraded and expanded its orientation activites. The predeparture program has a two-fold objective: to facilitate successful on-the-job performance in a multi-cultural setting, and to provide tools which will promote a rapid adjustment to the foreign environment for the FSE and the family members.

In addition to the work now underway, the Task Force recommends:

- producing Honeywell videopacks on foreign service assignments to help prepare FSEs and their families for the cultural adjustments they will face
- supplementing internal efforts with external, culture-specific training programs (e.g., on the Far East)
- training spouses and families as well as FSEs

The FSE should be exposed to the widest possible range of resources and information before departure so he/she is prepared to be an informed and effective employee early in the assignment.

- Support and Counseling During the Assignment

The second phase occurs when the FSE arrives in the host country. There must be ongoing support administered by the host component which will assist the FSE and family in managing a new life in a strange land. Brussels now provides such support. How spouses can support other spouses also deserves attention.

- **Repatriation**

The final stage of the foreign service assignment is the repatriation to the home country. FSEs revealed a common feeling of loss and displacement upon return and a significant underutilization of skills acquired while abroad. To help the FSE and family readjust, the task force recommends:

- encouraging participation in re-entry training programs outside of Honeywell whenever possible
- developing a videopack on re-entry that explores the stages of adjustment and what can be done to reacclimate more easily

Other Recommendations

Selection

- Whenever possible, early and systematic planning of FSE assignments should be made. This area needs further attention and study to insure the largest return on investment for both the corporation and the individual.

Career Pathing

- Likewise, an FSE career planning procedure now exists to bring an employee back into a well-matched domestic position. Under this policy a home country sponsor is designated to identify a good job fit upon the employee's return. This policy needs greater commitment from all levels of management to make it a successful and viable tool for repatriation.

THOSE WHO TRAVEL INTERNATIONALLY

While it is difficult to estimate the number of Honeywell employees who travel to a foreign country on business, figures from American Express and divisional estimates show that number to be approximately 2,500 or more. Of the 183 Honeywell employees who received this questionnaire and who had been identified as travelling internationally for their work, 143 completed the survey.

Areas most frequently travelled to included Europe, Canada, the Far East, and Latin America (in that order). The length of stay varied from a few days to several months. Marketing and engineering were the most highly represented functions. Executive, managerial, and professional technical levels dominated the sample.

Findings

The findings from this group reflect the following trends:

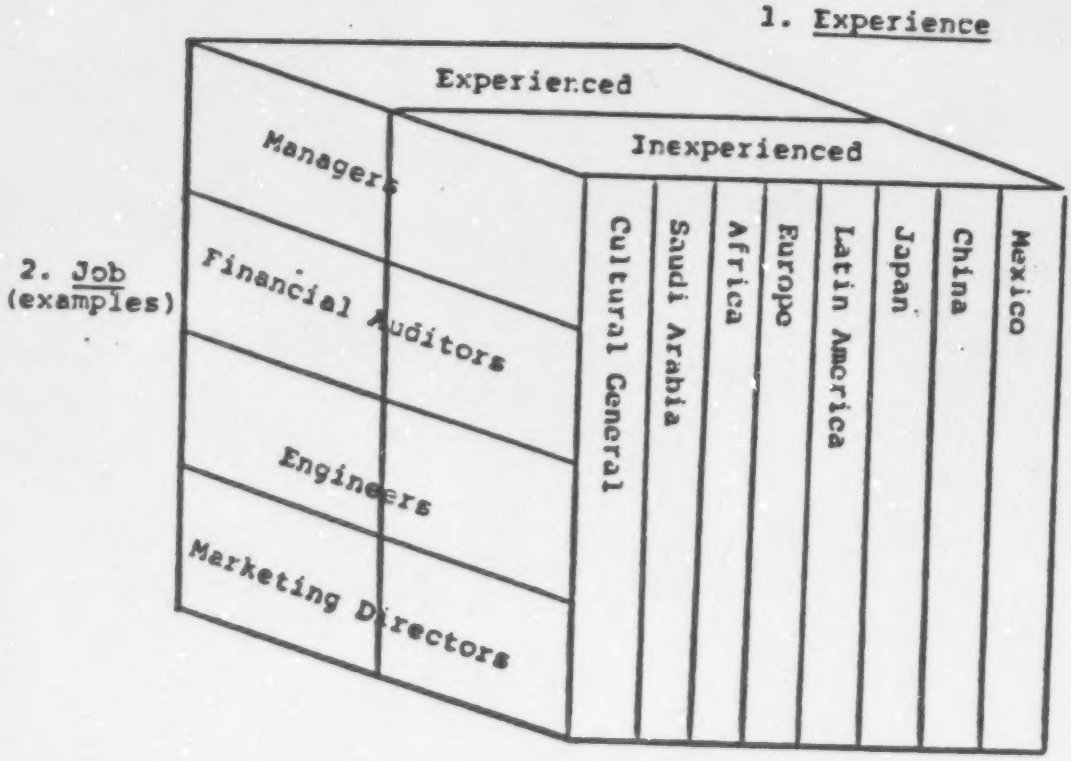
- 90% indicated that they would like to have a better understanding of how business is conducted in other countries.
- 50% have found cultural differences to be the primary barrier to effective business relations with people from other countries. Executives rated this the highest of any other group surveyed.
- 66% felt language differences have a negative effect on their ability to achieve business objectives with foreign nationals. As could be expected, those in sales, marketing, and engineering found the negative effect further reaching.
- Only 13% indicated that Honeywell does a good job of encouraging intercultural understanding among its employees and only 34% perceive that Honeywell is seen as an interculturally aware company by foreign nationals.
- However, 67% feel Honeywell has a good image worldwide as an international corporation.
- 26% have experienced difficulty in negotiations with foreign nationals, although that figure is higher for those in administration and marketing.
- 43% use an interpreter when conducting business.
- 95% of all respondents indicated that they look forward to doing business with people from other countries.

Recommendations

Survey data indicates that the effectiveness of Honeywell employees in international business is affected by cross-cultural and language differences. In designing training to meet these needs, three dimensions must be considered:

- experience with international traveling
- job requirements and specific job-related intercultural communication needs
- countries involved

These dimensions are represented by the cube below.



Training can be designed around any and all of these variables. A general, intercultural business communication workshop may be valuable for an employee who deals with a number of countries. That may be supplemented by a seminar focused on a given country. Likewise, for example, a group of auditors will experience different training needs than a group of engineers because of the nature of their work. More specific recommendations follow in the section, "International Training & Development."

Because Honeywell is so decentralized it is important that training be done not only in seminars but through other means available in all divisions. Examples of alternative delivery methods are resource materials (books, periodicals, tapes), videopacks, and networking activities.

Also, development occurs not only through formalized training but also through on-the-job assignments, short-term job rotations, and relationships. Such developmental activities need further attention and management involvement in planning.

NON-TRAVELLERS INVOLVED IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

This group includes employees who are involved in telephone communication or written correspondence with foreign nationals outside of the U.S. or who work with foreign nationals when they come to the U.S. (e.g., product training programs, Fort Washington). The task force estimates that there are approximately 4,000-5,000 U.S. employees in this group. Of the 160 employees who received this questionnaire, 86 responded. Positions represented include middle or first-level managers, professional technical, professional nontechnical, and support staff.

Findings

Data from this group revealed that:

- 81% indicated that they would like a better understanding of how business is conducted in foreign countries.
- 51% believe language differences are the primary barrier to effective business relations. The percentage was significantly higher for support staff, engineers, and marketing personnel.
- 35% have found that cultural differences have a negative effect on their ability to do business.
- 52% feel that Honeywell does <u>not</u> encourage intercultural understanding among its employees.
- However, only 3% feel that Honeywell does not have a good image worldwide as an international corporation.
- 70% indicated that they would like to travel abroad for work-related purposes.

Recommendations

This group is largely ignored because their work involves no international travel. However, the ease with which their work is accomplished is obviously affected by language differences and by not understanding how business is done in other countries.

Although they are less visible than the other two groups, it is important that they have access to information about other countries either through seminars, videotapes or printed materials and have an opportunity to learn languages that affect their work.

INTERVIEWS WITH SENIOR MANAGERS

As a part of the study, 25 senior managers were interviewed. The questions for this group focused on organizational issues business needs. The result centered on these four areas: international management, intercultural understanding, language capacity, and foreign service employees.

International Management

One of the biggest problems consistently identified by senior managers is the lack of understanding of Honeywell's international structure and how each part needs to interface with others. The areas identified for education and training are:

- Matrix management
- Honeywell structure
- Marketing in an international environment/ developing global strategies
- Finance and tax
- Operations
- Foreign exchange risk management
- Product development
- International pricing strategies

Europe and Japan continue to be important areas in Honeywell's international business. Developing countries and China will become areas for projected expansion.

Intercultural Understanding

Productivity was definitely seen by this group as affected by cultural differences. Although there is no way to estimate the amount of business lost by not understanding cultural and business differences, most executives agreed that effectiveness could be significantly enhanced by such understanding.

Honeywell, according to this group, operates as an American, not a truly multinational corporation. Most agreed that Honeywell needs to be more international in its approach to business. Part of such an approach is developing a more sophisticated understanding of different cultures and different business management practices.

Language Capacity

Because English is spoken by most non-Americans with whom U.S. mangement interfaces, foreign language ability is considered important by this group, but less necessary. Furthermore, there was universal agreement that making an effort to use a foreign language indicates an interest in that culture and should be promoted to improve relations with foreign counterparts. Also, language training should be targeted for those who deal consistently with one country or who will live in another country.

Foreign Service Employees

This group heavily emphasized the need to provide training for spouses and famliles. Selection and career pathing were identified as unresolved issues for FSEs. Furthermore, many were interested in how foreign assignments could be used as a developmental experience and encouraged the initiation of shorter-term assignments for developmental purposes.

INTERNATIONAL TRAINING & DEVELOPMENT

Programs

- Because so many language training programs already exist outside of Honeywell, Honeywell helps assess individual current and needed language skills and appropriate training programs through language brokering.

- Honeywell promotes tuition reimbursement for regular college and university language courses.

- Honeywell encourages small, informal language conversation groups to enhance language ability and provide an opportunity to use language skills. Other opportunities include tutoring, noon conversation groups, tapes/self-study methods, books and articles on language learning, and short Business French, German and Spanish courses which focus on survival skills, business vocabulary and culture.

Alternative Delivery Methods

Conclusions

- Because Honeywell is so decentralized, other means in addition to formal training programs must be accessible to any Honeywell employee.

- FSEs in particular pose problems for training since they go over to various countries one at a time, not as a group. Special provisions, i.e., videopacks on culture shock and cultural differences, must be available to meet the needs of this group.

Videopacks

Two series of video tapes have been developed:

- "International Effectiveness", designed to facilitate adaptation by both FSEs and travellers to a foreign environment. The 80 minute, seven segment tape consists of interviews by Honeywell FSEs and advice by professionals on "Preparation," "Language Learning," "Cultural Adaptation," "Business Effectiveness," "Family Adjustment," "Advantages" and "Re-Entry."

- "Cultural Differences in Managerial Styles" is to create awareness that cultural differences can be a powerful factor in international business. The 60 minute tape consists of research findings on Honeywell subsidiaries' managerial styles, presented by Dr. André Laurent, INSEAD, France.

There are also individual tapes on Singapore, Brussels, Japan and Taiwan.

The following training programs are now being offered to meet the intercultural needs of Honeywell employees:

- Recognizing Cultural Differences in International Business

  Cultural differences in managerial styles (using André Laurent's Honeywell research data), American image abroad & business effectiveness, how culture influences people in an organization, cultural synergy, characteristics of a successful international manager.

- Intercultural Communication & Negotiation: Advanced Skills

  Assessment of intercultural effectiveness, cross-cultural communication & synergy, effective behaviors, cross-cultural negotiation.

In addition, seminars which focus on particular countries are developed according to divisional needs. These include information on culture, history, business practices and etiquette, how Americans are perceived, communication issues, the economic and social environment. Programs to date include:

- Doing Business in Germany
- Doing Business in Japan
- Doing Business in France
- Doing Business in Italy
- Doing Business in The People's Republic of China
- Doing Business with Americans(for non-American personnel)

Language Training

Conclusions

- Lack of language fluency contributes to Honeywell's image as an American versus multinational corporation
- Language learning should be targeted for special groups, particularly:
  - FSEs
  - Those who business regularly takes them to a particular country
  - Those who deal with non-Americans who are not conversant in English
- Some level of foreign language usage is important for public relations under most circumstances.

INTERNATIONAL TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT: PRESENT PROGRAMS

Many recommendations for training emerged from the interviews and surveys. What also became increasingly evident was the need to closely link development activities with business activities and strategies. The next steps in providing close organizational links for training are to:

- assess the present and future international business of of each group/division, assess organizational needs, raise human resource issues and develop a concrete development plan
- establish a European International Training Task Team of senior managers to address European needs
- develop a closer link with other non-U.S. locations in identifying training needs

Three areas of training were indicated as important in support of Honeywell's international business:

- international management training
- intercultural training
- language training

International Management Training

Conclusions

- Honeywell mangement is adversely affected by a lack of understanding of the Honeywell structure and how to most effectively work within it.
- Honeywell is an "American" company with many foreign subsidiaries and is handicapped by not being more international in its operation.
- As Honeywell's international business increases, training in how to effectively operate in an international environment becomes increasingly important.

Programs

The following training programs are now being offered to meet the needs of managers working in international:

- International Management Development Program

  Developing global strategies, intercultural business management practices, international marketing approaches, operating in a matrix structure, foreign exchange risk management, material sourcing, production.

- International Finance for Non-Financial Managers

  Foreign exchange risk management and organizational exposure, competitive position, transfer pricing, financial relationship between subsidiaries and corporation.

- International Finance for Controllers

- International Negotiation

Intercultural Training

Conclusions

- Understanding cultural differences is very important to successfully conduct business internationally.
- 80-90% of all Honeywell managers would like to have a better understanding of how business is conducted in various countries.

Programs

As earlier discussed, intercultural training must address these three areas:

- general intercultural and culture-specific training
- degree of experience in international business
- functional requirements

International Resource Center

Books, articles, audiocassettes and videotapes are readily available to anyone in the corporation on international topics such as:

- Business Culture and practices in specific countries.
- International business issues such as finance, negotiation, strategic planning, world marketing, multinational policy towards underdeveloped countries, technology transfer, etc.
- Cross cultural management: synergy, the multicultural workforce, cultural assumptions underlying management practices, women in international management, non-verbal communication, etc.
- Functioning effectively overseas: jet lag, culture shock, marriage and the overseas assignment, re-entry, etc.
- Language: tapes and self-study methods, advice on how to learn a foreign language, proficiency guidelines, translating, language phrasebooks and dictionaries.

Selection|Career Pathing

Because of the number of issues surrounding selection and career pathing of Honeywell employees involved in international business (not just FSEs), these areas need further attention from senior management. Task teams representing a cross section of the U.S. division managers, non-U.S. subsidiaries, and employee relations managers are initiating discussion and decision-making on these issues.

HONEYWELL/COLLEGE OF ST. THOMAS PARTNERSHIP

Honeywell's partnership with the College of St. Thomas has involved numerous areas of cooperation and resulted in significant benefits to the company. The first area of cooperation was joint development of Business French and German courses designed specifically for busy, travelling managers who typically did not want formal grammar, but rather wanted practical, immediately useable business and travel vocabulary. To attract such managers, the course had to be flexible (to fit with unpredictable travel schedules), intriguing (to compete with immediate job priorities), culturally accurate (to provide tools for understanding complex cross-cultural situations), and most importantly, results-oriented (to prove that language learning was a fruitful pursuit and could make a direct business difference). Honeywell personnel and college faculty met over a period of several months to develop the courses, with Honeywell providing perspective on course components as they would appeal to a practical businessperson, and the college providing actual content.

Once the above criterion were met to the satisfaction of both Honeywell and the College, the courses were implemented. To date they have received a very positive response, although adjustments are still being made to deal with problems of motivation and proficiency differences within each class. Despite these, the benefits of joint course development have been important. Since the courses are tailor-made and use company data and cases, they are significantly more appealing and useful to employees than any pre-packaged course. Also, because the courses are designed and delivered by a well-respected local institution with expert faculty, they have gained needed status and credibility, thereby facilitating internal company marketing.

It should be noted that one concern of Honeywell was that the faculty might be unfamiliar with employees' special needs and concerns about language learning as mandated by a highly pragmatic business climate. This concern has proven unfounded, perhaps partially because of faculty efforts to become oriented to the company through readings, meetings and conversations with employees. In addition, course evaluations were conducted at three points: midway through the course, immediately afterwards, and several months later. This attempt to monitor course effectiveness has provided useful data and allowed for content modification as necessary.

The second area of cooperation is the mutual involvement of Honeywell/College of St. Thomas personnel and faculty in educational opportunities at each institution, such as seminars, foreign film series, and forums on international topics. Such cooperation has benefited both institutions by providing broader access to information on topics ranging from cultural training to trade deficits, by establishing a forum for stimulating interest in languages, and by cross-fertilizing each institution's evolution towards a more international posture.

The third area of cooperation is the creation of faculty internships in Honeywell affiliates abroad. During four to five weeks stays, the faculty will teach English and American culture to their Honeywell hosts and attend business meetings to expand their own knowledge of business language and customs. Again, this will directly benefit Honeywell since capable, enthusiastic American professors will generate deepened understanding of American language and culture, thereby ultimately enhancing American/affiliate business relations. Also, faculty participation in business meetings will naturally provide excellent practical material with which to enrich

the business language courses at both Honeywell and the College.

A final area of cooperation is Honeywell's consultation on the development of the College's international MBA track. This MBA will eventually provide a wider pool of well-trained area graduates who are already culturally skilled and capable of more immediate contributions towards solving complicated international business problems.

In sum, the Honeywell/St. Thomas partnership has clearly opened new avenues of cooperation which have directly benefited each partner. By bridging the so-called cultural gap between business and academia, both institutions are more effectively attaining their mutual goal of a truly international posture. This international posture will create a new and critically different workforce composed of managers who are culturally and linguistically versatile, cosmopolitan, and able to flexibly adapt to an increasingly complex international environment.

APPENDIX

SURVEYED:

- 150 Foreign service employees
- 143 Honeywell employees who travel internationally
- 54 Honeywell employees who do not travel but are involved in international business

347 Total responses (Approximately 550 sent)

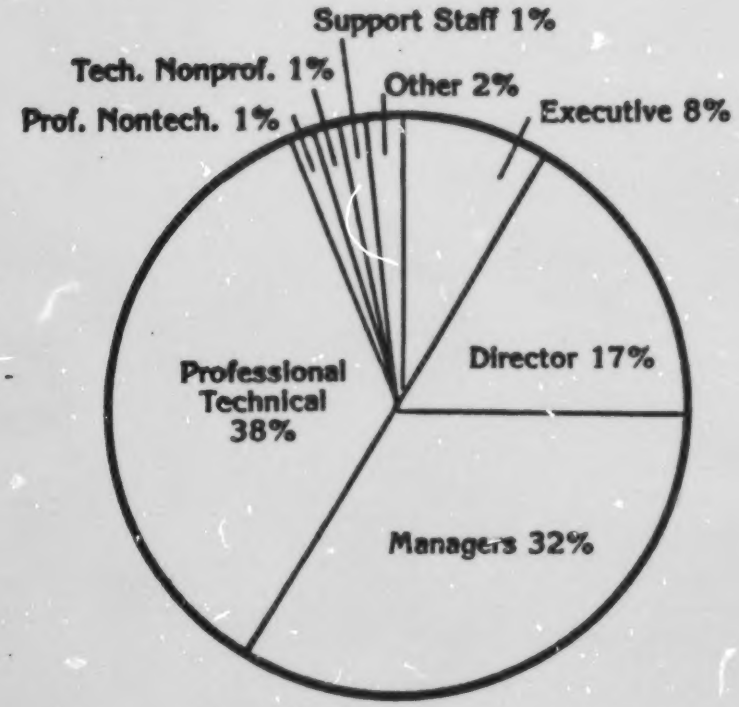
INTERVIEWED:

- 13 Senior Executives
- 23 U.S. Managers
- 18 European Managers/E.R. Directors

54 Total

394

FSE



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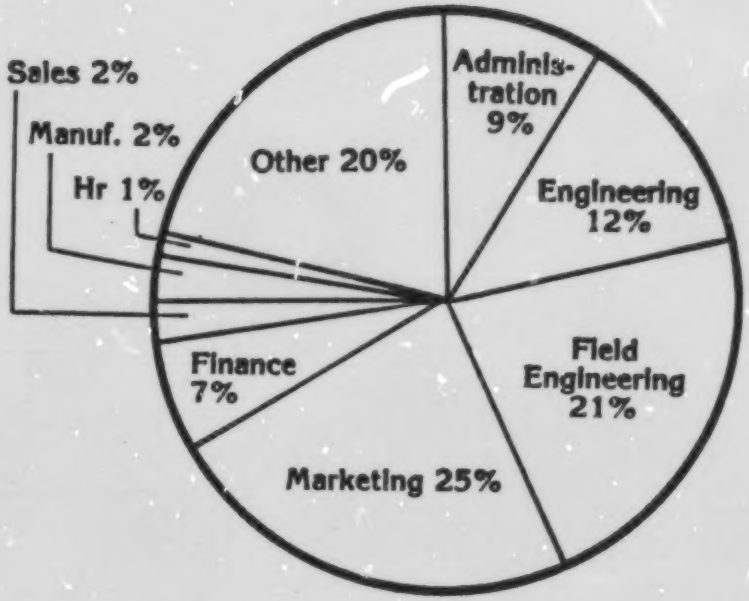
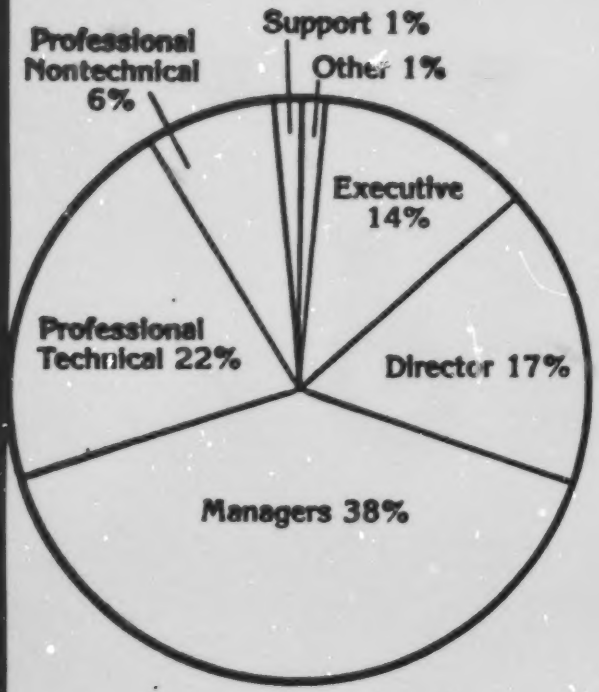


FUNCTION

TRAVEL



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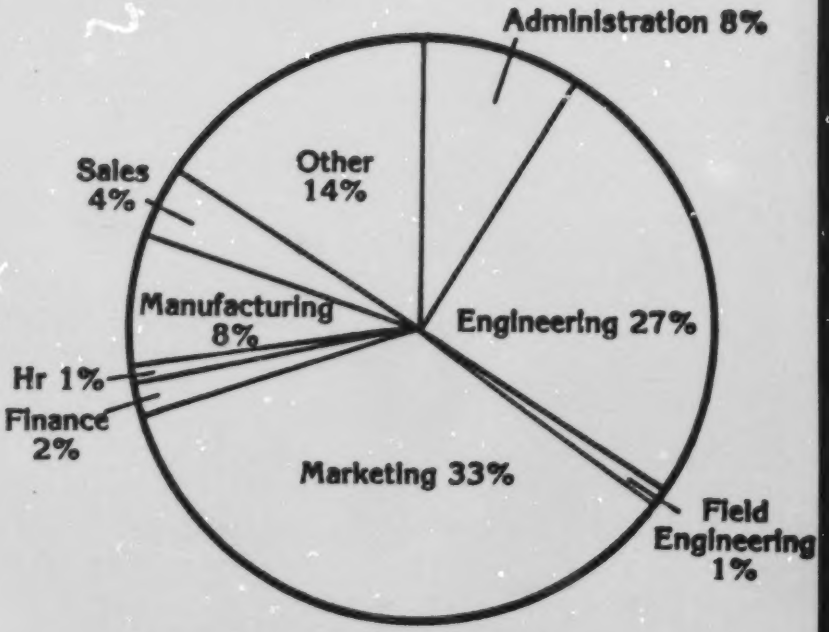


FUNCTION

KEY SURVEY RESULTS

FSE's

74% Want better understanding of how business is conducted in other countries

86% Felt Honeywell did little to *prepare* them to live abroad

59% Said their skills were not being used effectively after return (80% of executives said they were effectively used)

TRAVELLERS

90% Want better understanding of how business is conducted in other countries

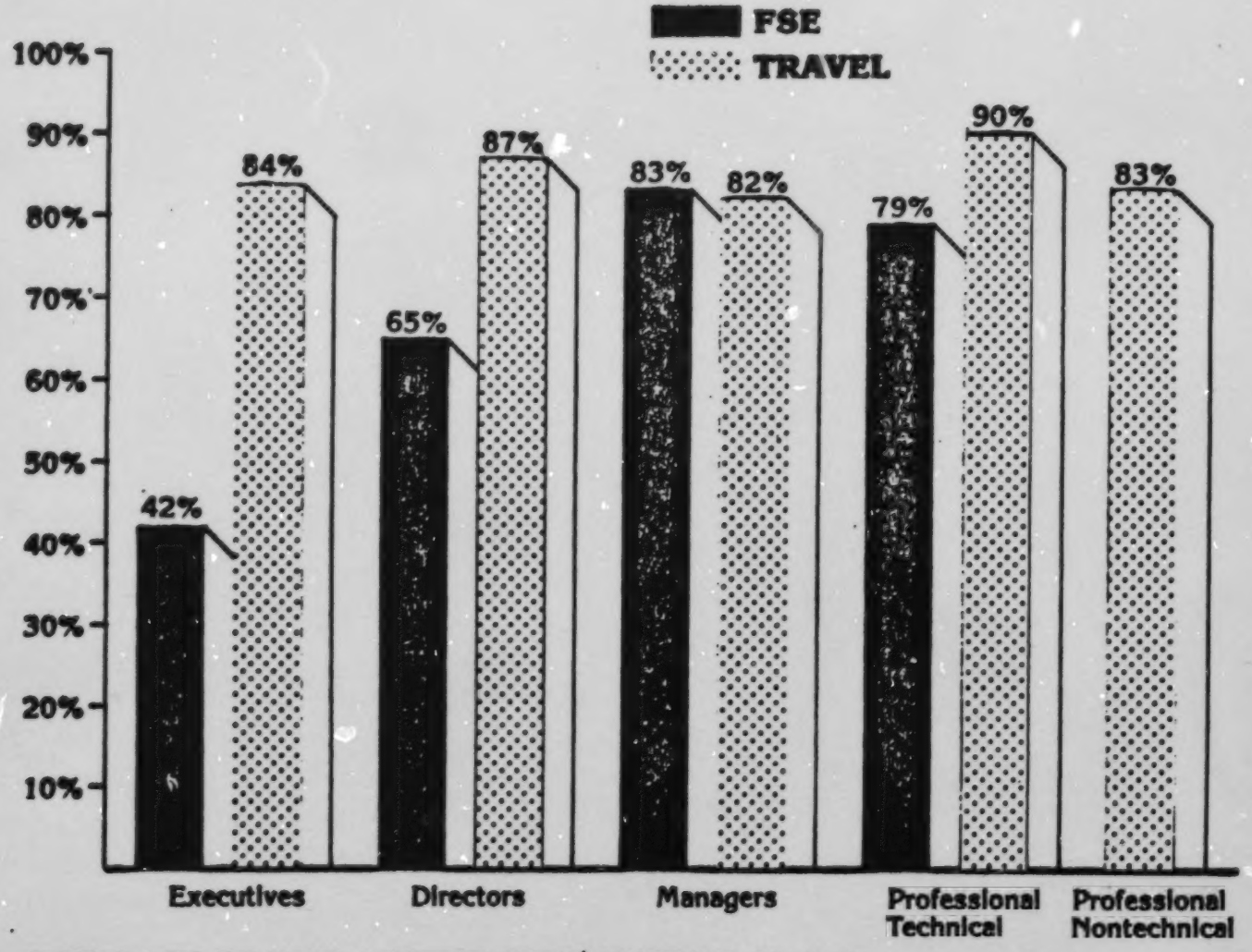
72% Of managers felt Honeywell does *not* do a good job of encouraging intercultural understanding among its employees

71% Of directors agreed that cultural differences are the primary barrier to effective business relations

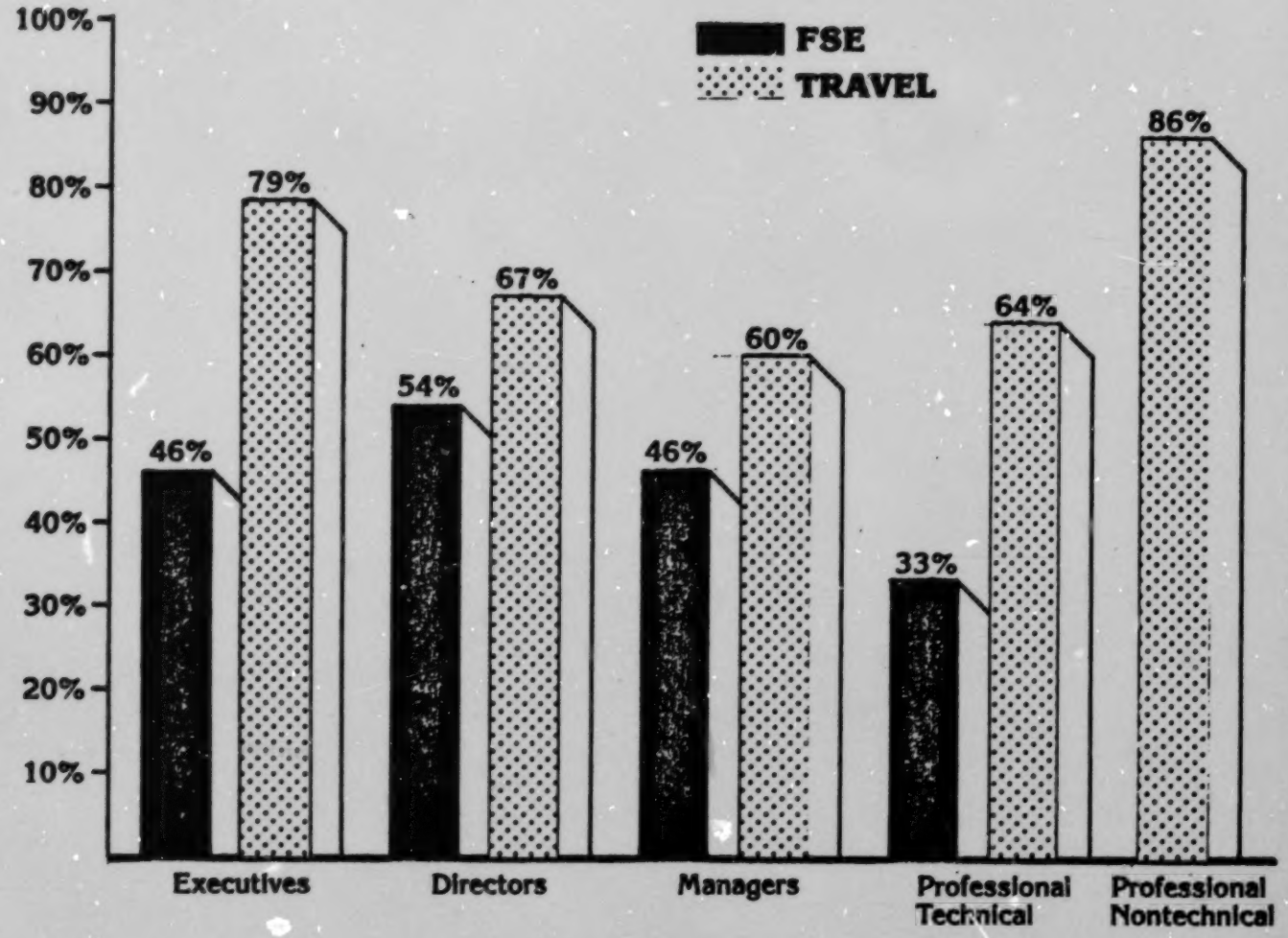
66% Overall found language differences a severe problem (sales & marketing highest)

KEY INTERVIEW RESULTS

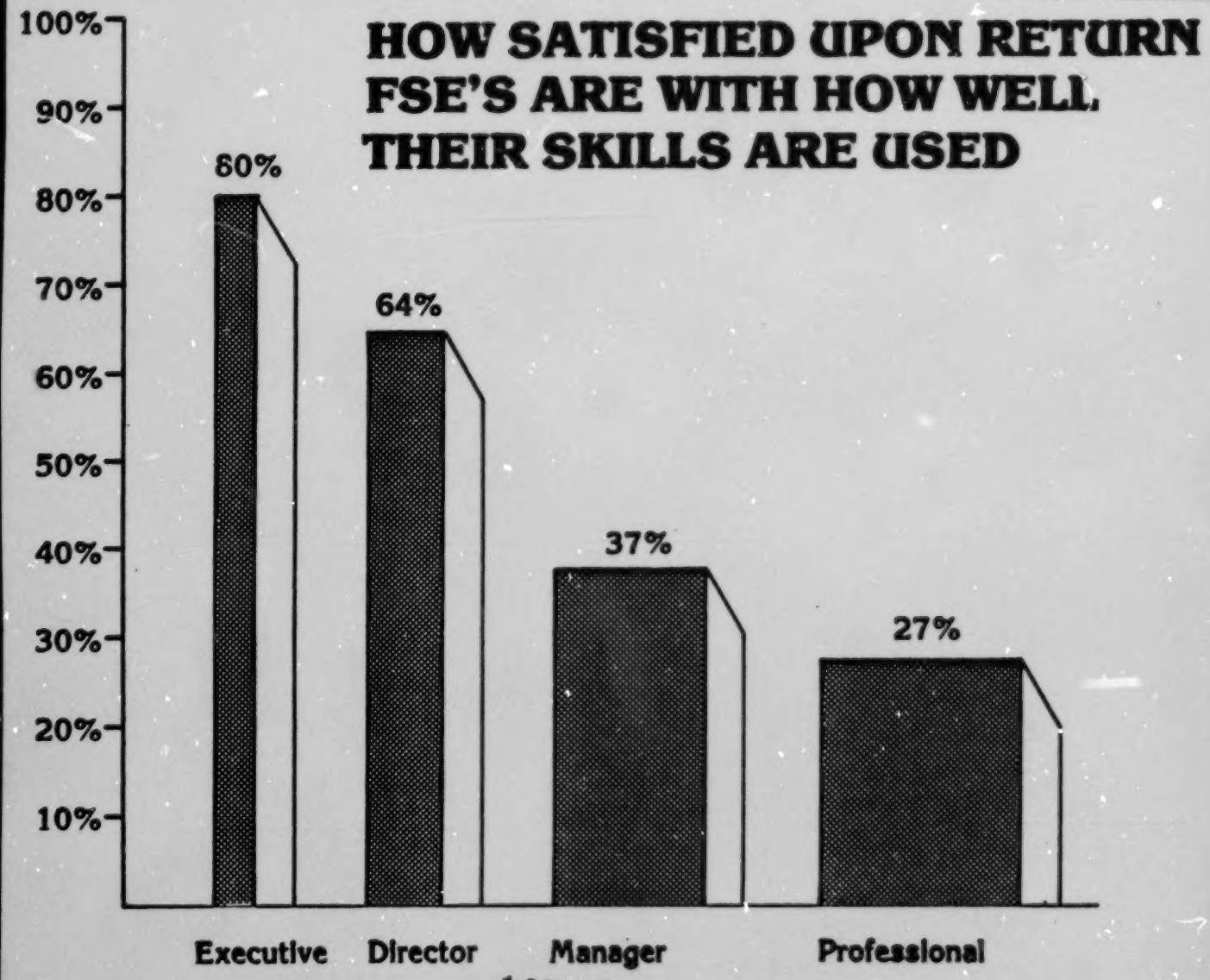
- International management training critical in these areas:
  - MATRIX MANAGEMENT
  - HONEYWELL STRUCTURE
  - MARKETING
  - FINANCE & TAX
  - OPERATIONS
  - FOREIGN CURRENCY EXCHANGE RISK MANAGEMENT
- Productivity perceived as definitely affected by cultural differences
- Learning foreign languages important for selected managers
- Training of FSE spouse and family important
- Selection and career pathing of FSE's remains an issue



WOULD LIKE TO HAVE A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF HOW BUSINESS IS CONDUCTED IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES



NEGATIVE EFFECT OF LANGUAGE DIFFERENCES BY LEVEL


HOW SATISFIED UPON RETURN FSE'S ARE WITH HOW WELL THEIR SKILLS ARE USED
100%
90%
80%
70%
60%
50%
40%
30%
20%
10%
80%
64%
37%
27%
Executive
Director
Manager
Professional

OVERVIEW OF TRAINING ACTIVITIES

TARGET GROUPS	INTERNATIONAL MANAGEMENT	INTERCULTURAL	LANGUAGE	VIDEOPACKS	RESOURCE CENTER
Senior Managers	XX	XX	X		X
FSEs	X	XX	XX	XX	XX
Int'l Bus/Travel	XX	XX	XX	X	XX
Int'l, Bus/No Travel	X	XX	X		XX

XX = Extremely Important
X = Important

THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE COLLEGE

Paul A. Schons

The College of St. Thomas is a private, liberal arts college located in St. Paul, Minnesota. The student population at the college has grown rapidly during the past several years and now approaches 6,000. The college has an undergraduate student body now approaching 4,000. Graduate Programs in Business Management, Education and Liturgy and Catachetics account for the remaining students. The largest and most rapidly growing program at the graduate level is the Graduate Program in Business Management.

Due to the current national interest in career oriented education, the undergraduate programs in Business have also shown the greatest growth within the four year baccalaureate program. Over 50% of current undergraduate students choose one of the major field programs in Business Administration.

The college offers undergraduate foreign language programs in French, German, Greek, Latin and Spanish. Through a cooperative program with four other local private colleges and the University of Minnesota, students may also elect to take course work in Japanese, Chinese, and Russian, Plans are currently underway to add programs in Arabic. The college continues to require the completion of at least three semesters of foreign language study by all undergraduate students for graduation.

Seven years prior to the development of the partnership with Honeywell, the college had established a major field of study combining advanced work in one foreign language along with course work in business and economics. The program was initiated and administered by the Department of Foreign Languages. The Department of Business Administration was relatively disinterested in such a program at the time, but was willing to accept it into the college

curriculum. The Department of Foreign Languages was prompted to initiate the program because of concern about the loss of the traditional placement potential in education, concern about low numbers of students studying foreign languages at the advanced level, and through recognition of a growing demand for career oriented programs. Encouraged by sharply increasing numbers of students choosing the major in Foreign Language and Business, the appearance of Congressman Simon's, The Tongue Tied American, the report of President Carter's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies, numerous articles and reports on the growing need for industry to expand in the international marketplace, and growing sentiment at the state level that the development of international trade would be essential to the economic welfare of Minnesota, the Department of Foreign Languages at the College of St. Thomas increased its effort to develop the program.

Courses were added to the curriculum in Business German, Commercial French, and Business Spanish. Emphasis was given to the language of business at the introductory and intermediate levels of language study, and at those levels the emphasis on contemporary cultural information increased its importance in relation to the study of historical culture and literature. At advanced levels of language study, courses in current events were introduced and courses focusing on language use increased in importance and frequency of offering in relation to literature courses.

Concurrently with the developments described above, the department began to develop programs for its students to study abroad. Until 1975 the college had offered no programs for such International Education. An Office of Study Abroad was established within the Department of Foreign Languages. The college established permanent relationships with universities in Germany, Japan, Spain,

South America and England as well as affiliations with pre-existing programs in the United States offering programs abroad. Within eight years the college was sponsoring 150 student programs abroad annually.

During that eight year period, the Department of Political Science had established a major field program in International Studies, and the college had begun to offer full scholarships to students from cooperating universities in Germany, France, Peru and Japan. During the same period the college as a hole had developed an acutely increased sensitivity to the need for development in international programs. In 1983 the college removed the responsibility for programs abroad from the Foreign Language Instructor who had until then directed the program on a part time basis and established an Office of International Education with a full time director. The current goal of the program is to so arrange that 50% of the student body will have studied abroad before graduation.

By 1982 the increasing sense of the need to internationalize the curriculum along with increasing emphasis on international programs from accrediting agencies and professional literature moved the Department of Business Administration from its previous posture of benign neglect in regard to the foreign language-business combination major to a posture of increasing interest. The department undertook a formal examination of the question of a major program in International Business and entered into discussion on the topic with the Department of Foreign Languages.

The Department of Business Administration had previously opposed the title "International Business" as applied to the then existing major in Foreign Language and Business Administration. It now, however, proposed a two track major to be called "International Business". The new program, instituted the following year, offers students a choice between a track which offers a primary

concentration in Business and Economics and a secondary concentration in Foreign Language or a primary concentration in Foreign Language with a secondary concentration in Business and Economics.

It was within this climate at the College of St. Thomas that the first contacts between the Department of Foreign Languages and the Honeywell Corporate International Training and Development Program were made. The Department of Foreign Languages at the college was in the process of developing its level of international involvement and developing a keen interest in programs in International Business. Honeywell had completed its investigation of needs in International Development and had launched the forward looking program described today by Ms. Hess. One of the Honeywell executives, Dr. James Renier, who was instrumental in the development of the Honeywell International Training and Development Program, serves also on the Board of Trustees of the College of St. Thomas. In discussion with the President of the College, Monsignor Terrence Murphy, common interests and desire for development were identified. Dr. Renier suggested that representatives of the college and the corporation meet to explore cooperation to the mutual benefit of the two institutions.

At the time of that meeting, the Honeywell International Development Center was considering the offering of courses in Business German and Business French. Faculty at the college had been developing just such expertise and were eager to offer their services, both as an opportunity for their own professional development, and as an opportunity to work directly with industry. Both Honeywell and the College of St. Thomas were anxious to explore further avenues of cooperation. Yet critical questions remained to be answered before even the first step might be undertaken.

The question of faculty remuneration was a simple matter of negotiation

and presented little problem. The question of faculty status was more complex. It was agreed that it would be more desirable to both parties that faculty would undertake assignments at Honeywell in their capacity as faculty of the college rather than on a free lance consulting basis. The problem which arose in this context was the more or less traditional reluctance of the liberal arts faculty as a whole to become involved with industry. This was a matter of concern, not only to faculty outside of the Department of Foreign Languages, but also to several members of the department. To avoid this problem it was determined to make the arrangements with Honeywell, not through the traditional academic apparatus of the college, but rather through the offices of the evening and weekend division of the college, "New College". The Dean of New College, Dr. Jerome Halverson, proved to be most cooperative and helpful, and the course work delivery contract with Honeywell was soon in effect through that division.

In the process of development of the instructional contract other avenues of cooperation were investigated. Although Honeywell's interest was primarily in German and French, it was agreed that Spanish would also be made available if demand were to warrant its offering. It was further agreed that the College of St. Thomas faculty would be invited to participate in Honeywell sponsored international seminars as a part of the college's faculty development program. It was agreed that Honeywell employees would be specifically informed of presentations and lectures at the College of St. Thomas which would contribute to employee development. Of specific pertinance to the language instruction package was the St. Thomas German Film Series, to which Honeywell employees are specifically invited. Beginning in 1984 the series will be expanded to an international film series to which Honeywell employees will be specifically invited, thus fostering the corporate goal of increased international awareness.

on the part of the employees.

An additional problem which arose in preparation of the language courses was the question of instructional materials. It had been determined that the courses would provide introductory courses in the languages with an emphasis on the language of economics and business. The courses had been determined to be 20 instructional hours in duration. It soon became apparent that texts specifically suited to the purpose were not available. Thus, instructors at the college undertook the writing of the texts, Introduction to German Through the Language of Business and Economics for International Personnel and French For Business Travelers. A similar text for Business Spanish is in progress.

Instruction began in seminar rooms of Honeywell's Corporate Human Resources Center in June, 1983. Initially, the courses were open only to Honeywell employees. It has been suggested that husbands and wives of employees also be invited to participate, thus increasing the effect of instruction on employees. The suggestion is under consideration. Another question which has arisen is whether the effect of instruction might be greater at the corporate Human Resources Center, thus within the total corporate environment, or at facilities of the college thus taking advantage of the image of the academic context. No final decision has been reached on this matter.

Benefits to the students of the college have been significant. Foreign Language faculty have been forced to upgrade their knowledge of business in preparing the Honeywell courses. The fruit of this work is offered, of course, not only to Honeywell students, but also to the students of the college. The faculty's interest in business and the language of business has grown significantly, resulting in much broader attendance at seminars and conferences on the subject. The level of research on the subject has increased significantly

not only on the part of those who teach for Honeywell, but among a broader base of faculty. Again, the advantage to students is a direct result.

Another noticeable advantage to the department is that those dangerous, though undefined "Corporate Sharks" so feared by several of the faculty at the outset of negotiations with Honeywell, have not emerged to bite us. No one has emerged to attempt to inhibit our academic freedom, nor to try to push us in directions into which we do not wish to move. The primary effect of the partnership with Honeywell has been that a new and interesting area of inquiry and development has been opened to the Department of Foreign Languages. We are finding that we are able to converse much more easily and intelligently with faculty in business and economics. We find that we are able to begin to develop further cooperative programs with those departments.

The most recent development in the partnership is that Honeywell has agreed to place three St. Thomas faculty in "faculty internships" with Honeywell affiliates in Germany and France during the summer of 1984. St. Thomas faculty will contribute through giving instruction in English while abroad, and will be offered the opportunity to observe procedures in the offices abroad, thus increasing their direct experience in German and French business language and business practices. Needless to say, that increased expertise will increase the effectiveness of the contribution of those instructors to Honeywell in their work in the the Human Resources Development Center, but from the college's perspective will also increase their effectiveness on campus.

At the college, the positive experiences with Honeywell have contributed to the impetus to develop an international track within the existing MBA Program. Honeywell executives, along with other representatives of locally based multinational firms, contributed significantly to several stages of planning and needs

assessment. Faculty who have taught in the Honeywell program have been intimately involved in the planning and development of the new MBA Program. (Within the International MBA Program, foreign language study will play a significant, integrated role.) The College of St. Thomas will thus offer Honeywell and other multi-nationals the first International Graduate Business Program in the region. The program, like the current MBA Program, is designed to be a developmental sequence offered evenings and weekends for personnel concurrently employed by local industry.

Simultaneously, New College (the evening weekend undergraduate division of the college) will begin to offer short term courses in import-export technology. This is also intended as a service to local international industry through its offering of a training program for current employees of local industry. A newly designed Center for the Study of Language and Culture will offer support programs to current and new programs on campus. The programs of the Center will also be made available to large measure to employees of Honeywell and other local industry.

In its entirety, current progress toward the internationalization of the St. Thomas curriculum, the addition of new programs in service to industry, along with the specific partnership with Honeywill are all components of a larger pattern re-evaluating a traditional "splended isolation" of academia, and allowing a general partnership with industry such as will work to the benefit of each and the greater effectiveness of each. We do not assume that all traditional fears of loss of academic freedom or freedom of inquiry through entanglement with business are necessarily unfounded. We do feel that cooperation with business can lead to many positive results, and that carefully designed partnerships can preclude the negative results so often projected from the halls of academia.

LANGUAGE/CULTURE COURSES IN SPANISH, GERMAN, AND FRENCH FOR ROCKWELL INTERNATIONAL

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BEST COPY AVAILABLE

LANGUAGE/CULTURE COURSES
IN SPANISH, GERMAN, AND FRENCH
FOR ROCKWELL INTERNATIONAL

"Sa banque opère maintenant sous deux chapeaux." ("His bank is now operating under two hats.") This headline of an article in the January 20, 1984 issue of Journal Français d'Amérique introduces us to McKenzie Moss, director of Bank of the West, serving 35 branches in California's Silicon Valley, and recently acquired by the Banque Nationale de Paris. Mr. Moss, preparing for his international responsibilities, has enthusiastically undertaken 75 hours of French instruction at the International Institute in Monterrey and listens to audio-cassettes while driving. In addition, he discusses the importance of understanding fundamental differences in philosophy between French and Americans on management practices and problem solving. He states emphatically that American businessmen commit a serious mistake if they do not learn another language, that we expect too much of foreign businessmen who come here, that it is the most elementary courtesy when in the foreign country to be able to understand and speak intelligently even if it is with difficulty.

Rockwell International is another corporation which has taken steps to support its international activities. Located in the nation's Midwest, Collins Telecommunications Products Division in Cedar Rapids is Rockwell's smallest facility in the United States. Subdivisions of Rockwell are located in France, Italy, and England. Distributors of Rockwell products are located in Germany and in several Latin American countries.

Management personnel in the Rockwell/Collins Division are involved with international customers through correspondence and on-site contacts both in the foreign countries and in the Cedar Rapids plant.

Kirkwood Community College has played a valuable role in this corporation's needs for the international scene. Kirkwood is one of 16 area colleges established in 1967 by the Iowa Department of Public Instruction to serve the educational needs of adults in a seven county region. Since that time, KCC courses, both in the evening credit programs of the Arts and Sciences Division and in the non-credit Community Education Division, have attracted Rockwell/Collins personnel who desired self-improvement or sought job related knowledge. In the latter case, the industry underwrote the cost of tuition upon successful completion of the course.

A survey of Rockwell managers was conducted in 1978 to determine needs and interest in foreign language training. Greatest interest was expressed for the French language, with Spanish and German following. Subsequent surveys continued to show interest in these three languages, with Spanish taking first place. Negotiations began between the Rockwell education coordinator and the head of the KCC Foreign Language Department. The course was to be an introductory one for management personnel with little or no knowledge of the target language. The course was to provide cultural orientation to the people and country as well as to develop communication skills with an emphasis on conversation.

The existing Community Education model, consisting of only 16 to 24 hours of instruction, had been discarded as inadequate. These courses were relatively unstructured, had no homework or proficiency testing, and required little evidence of instructor qualifications. The introductory French credit course, Elementary French I, provided 48 hours of classroom instruction for 4 quarter hours credit. This course was part of a sophisticated individualized instructional system with study guides, tests, individual cassettes for students, mastery testing, and evaluation of oral competencies.

A special section of Introductory French I was created for Rockwell personnel. Tuition and registration fees were established on the basis of 15 part-time students carrying 4 credit hours each. No additional charge would be made for up to 20 enrollees. Rockwell purchased the texts and workbooks. Kirkwood assumed the cost of instructor, cassettes, and other supplies and materials. Students completed registration forms at the first class meeting, and a grade list was sent to Rockwell at the conclusion of the course. Classes were scheduled in the Rockwell facilities, two evenings per week, three hours each session, for eight weeks.

The Rockwell French course was open to managerial staff in the Avionics section. The majority were engineers, and all students had college degrees. Several had previously studied Spanish, French, or German. Considering the age of the participants, it was unlikely that they had been exposed to the audiolingual methods of the sixties. Their past experiences were

in traditional college foreign language courses or none at all. The Rockwell group were highly motivated and enthusiastic. The intellectual level of the classes was above average, and the group was more homogeneous than other foreign language classes at Kirkwood. However, there was considerable absenteeism because of out-of-country assignments.

During the five years following this Rockwell/Collins pilot program in French, Kirkwood continued to provide introductory courses in Spanish and German and a second level in Spanish. The target language was chosen on the basis of the annual survey. In 1981, during a reorganization of Kirkwood, the Foreign Language Department was absorbed first into the Communication Skills Department (English, Fine Arts, Foreign Language), then moved into its present harbor in the Social Sciences Department. With personnel changes at Rockwell, old patterns were modified, and the Spanish course offered in the winter of 1984 was arranged with 18 hours of instruction through the Community Education Division. Somewhat consistently, 15 to 20 Rockwell managers enrolled in each course. Other time patterns than the 3-hour sessions of the pilot course have also been used: 2-hour evening sessions twice a week for 12 weeks, and 2-hour sessions from 4 to 6 p.m. twice a week. Grades earned for the French course by the 16 students were as follows: "A" (5 students), "B" (3 students), "Pass" (chosen by 7 students); one student withdrew. Subsequent courses were not significantly different in grade distribution.

Several problems were experienced in all the foreign language courses. To accommodate those students who missed classes or were having difficulty completing outside study because of foreign assignments, overtime assignments, and meetings, the instructors permitted exams to be taken as late as six weeks after conclusion of the course. Students were allowed to complete tests on their own time in order to utilize a maximum of class time for instruction. Students and instructors were fatigued by the long evening sessions. The 4 to 6 p.m. time pattern was the most satisfactory. Rockwell personnel worked until 4:30, but could be excused one-half hour early for this kind of training.

When a corporation provides its staff with an educational opportunity, it has the right to expect quality control of the product and accountability from the participants and the organization providing the service. Kirkwood contracted to provide an instructor and a syllabus that would result in certain student proficiencies for an agreed sum of money. A course outline described specific goals for knowledges in both language and culture. Among these goals was a list of oral competencies that would be useful in communicating with the native at an elementary level. As the service organization, Kirkwood was responsible for the quality of the program. The principal elements in the design of the course were instructor, methodology, materials, and evaluation.

In 1978 Kirkwood's Foreign Language Department offered three years college level instruction in French, Spanish, and

German. Only two full-time instructors in Spanish and French were part of the permanent staff. The proximity of the University of Iowa and the metropolitan Cedar Rapids area were sources of qualified and experienced part-time instructors. These were the criteria considered necessary for the Rockwell personnel instructors: (1) at least 10 years successful teaching experience, at freshman-sophomore college or high school level: (2) having taught a sequence of foreign language, such as in a 2-year college or 4-year high school program; (3) possessing cultural learning materials; (4) travel and study in the foreign country; (5) native or near native proficiency in the target language; (6) knowledge of pedagogy and acceptance of non-traditional methodology; (7) active and known in professional organizations. The three who served as instructors were Joanne Beasler, Spanish, Kennedy High School, Cedar Rapids; Charles Silliman, German, Mt. Vernon High School, Mt. Vernon; Florence Masters, French, Kirkwood Community College, Cedar Rapids.

The French program at Kirkwood was an individualized system that could be modified for multi-level and self-paced instruction. This program was adapted to the goals and structure of the Rockwell French course. At the first class meeting, students received a learning kit that consisted of text, study guide, cassette duplications, program chart, course outline, schedule of classes and presentations. The assigned classroom was equipped with an overhead projector, filmstrip/slide projector, cassette player, and chalkboard. Classroom routine

usually consisted of presentation and drill of material for developing the oral competencies, review, introduction of new material and drill. The final 30 or 40 minutes were given to cultural presentations using slides, demonstrations, exhibits, culture capsules. The subsequent courses in Spanish and German were organized in a similar pattern.

That the adult learner finds second language learning more difficult than a child or a teen-ager is one of the myths challenged in a recent article in The French Review, "Second Language Acquisition in Adults." Those of us who have taught adult learners for a number of years have been impressed by their adaptability, their diligence, their quick minds, and their ability to learn a foreign language. All three instructors accepted extra hours, the task of restructuring their curriculum, and part-time pay for the privilege of working with the Rockwell students. The German and Spanish instructors expressed their satisfaction with teaching mature people, their gratification at the results of their teaching, and the appreciation shown by the students.

Methodology in foreign language may appear to change as swiftly as technology. Having been weaned on the reading method, I turn today to the invention of the audio-cassette as the miracle contribution of the century to foreign language acquisition. The audio-lingual methods of the 1960's evolved into the communicative competence approach of the 1970's. Most of us have our "méthode à moi-même". This quotation from Ms. Rehorick's article in The French Review expresses very

well the philosophy behind our Kirkwood program: "The student is to organize his learning around his capabilities of doing certain things with the second language, much in the same way as he does with the native language. Grammar assumes an intermediate stage." The teacher becomes the facilitator, and this is well described by H. Douglas Brown: "The teacher...must be real and genuine, discard the mask of superiority and omniscience, ...needs to have genuine trust, acceptance, and prizing of the other person as a worthy, valuable individual, ...needs to communicate openly and empathetically with his students."

"Cultural accountability" is another aspect of foreign language study that has been given increased attention in the past decade. The foreign language instructor uses the tools of anthropology and sociology to promote knowledge and understanding of the foreign people and their life. Many of us have adopted the anthropologist's definition: culture is everything man made that exists around us.

Culture with the "big C" or fine arts, a companion of traditional college foreign language study, continues to be important. The Rockwell engineer, in his society, should be as knowledgeable about great writers, artists, and musicians as his French counterpart, who is proud to speak easily about literature, theater, music, and art. Culture with the "little c" is concerned with everyday life and covers what is needed for getting along with people and for existing in the society. To achieve understanding and empathy toward another culture can be a major goal of foreign language courses. However, this

goal must be explicitly stated, and activities must be planned to help the student attain it.

In the teaching of culture, we turn to the sociologist to define and classify society and its institutions. My cultural files, for example, are organized under headings of institutions: language, education, family, religion, government, economics, recreation. Specific classroom activities, drawn from each of these areas, can provide a perspective, even though limited, of the foreign culture. Activities focused on the following topics were presented in the introductory French course: non-verbal communication, attitudes toward food and drink, practicing table manners, identifying chief monuments, learning the physical characteristics of a region.

What have the Rockwell foreign language courses accomplished? Follow-up surveys conducted by the Rockwell education coordinator indicated satisfaction with instructors, materials, and content. Missing classes and fatigue due to evening scheduling were a concern of the students. Instructors observed that "A" or "B" grades identified students with above average proficiencies, diligence, and courage. Over 80 managerial personnel were exposed to learning a foreign language and culture. Two young engineers in the French class showed exceptional linguistic ability and continued to enroll in Kirkwood's evening French program for almost two years. These two, however, were considered by their peers as young and inexperienced and were not likely to be sent on a foreign assignment. One engineer in French, held in high esteem by his colleagues, continued his study to

complete almost two years. His foreign assignments included Israel, middle-eastern countries, Germary, and France. German was his college language, but he became more comfortable with French and France.

In summation, it was evident that 48 hours of instruction could provide survival proficiency in the target language and culture. The student left this course armed with the courage to face the native speaker, the process for continuing to learn the language on his own or in the native setting, and the desire to understand the foreign people. Corporations such as Rockwell, with their growing international involvement, provide the climate and the motivation for their personnel to move into international education.

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CROSS-CULTURAL NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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Cross-Cultural Negotiations Strategies in the Language Classroom

by

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Abstract

This paper deals with five basic questions. They are as follows:

1--What is negotiation and what does it entail? It is defined and salient features, including language use strategies, are described.

2--How does culture affect negotiation? Culture's role in communication is discussed. Then the U.S. and Japan are studied for cultural and communicative factors that relate to differences in negotiation styles.

3--How do differing conversational styles affect cross-cultural effectiveness? The importance of conversational management strategies is discussed and examples given which point to new directions in language teaching.

4--What are some effective cross-cultural negotiating strategies? Two real cases are briefly discussed: then Japanese and American tendencies in negotiations are contrasted. After that, 20 "strategies" are listed and briefly explained.

5--What can we do as educators to better prepare business clients for cross-cultural business in general and negotiations more specifically? Our work is categorized under three headings: understanding, skills, and attitudes. A review of techniques for each is done and a few teaching materials are listed in an appendix.

Cross-Cultural Negotiation Strategies in the Language Classroom

"The world has narrowed into a neighborhood before it has broadened into a brotherhood." (Lyndon Baynes Johnson)

We have the means to communicate with anyone in the world technologically, but many of us lack the perceptual awareness and cross-cultural skills to make any communication attempt meaningful and mutually satisfying. All too often, our misunderstanding of others leads us through a maze of misperception of the situation.

The world of business is an interdependent one. With interdependence comes conflict. The more we trade with others, the more we need to understand those others. The Japanese have learned this ever so well in recent years. Many American business leaders have not. In our cross-cultural experiences, we have had many opportunities to see people talking <u>at</u> one another or <u>past</u> one another rather than <u>to</u> and <u>with</u> one another.

"The plain fact is that most people are not prepared to conduct international business. They lack...an appreciation of how subtly different cross-cultural communication is and an awareness of how much cultural baggage they carry with them in their own perception habits when making evaluations and judgements in even the most routine situations. The mental patterns of one's own group become unquestioned 'common sense' and 'human nature.' This is very functional at home; it plays havoc abroad."1

It has been said that to really understand any system, it is sometimes necessary to step outside of it in order to gain a fresh and more objective perspective. That seems true whether we're talking about people or companies or cultures. One of the things that we can do in the language classroom is to help our business clients step outside of their assumptions, beliefs, and communicative styles so that they can not only understand the target language and business culture, but their own as well. That puts us beyond just the world of language, and into the world of culture, philosophy and values, psychology and sociology. Language is but a tool for getting things done.

From my title, "Cross-Cultural Negotiation Strategies in the Language Classroom," several questions become central:

1—What is negotiation and what does it entail?

2—How does culture affect negotiation?

3--How do differing language styles and strategies affect negotiation?

4--What are some effective cross-cultural negotiating strategies?

5--What can we do in the classroom to better prepare our business clients so that they can operate more effectively in cross-cultural situations?

But first, I'd like to begin with the implied question of this paper which is how we can use persuasion in the intercultural setting. Going back many centuries, we can get a clear and concise view from Aristotle. He wrote that there were three key factors in persuading others. Those factors were ethos (a speaker's character), pathos (the emotions that a speaker aroused in an audience), and logos (the logical reasoning of a speaker). "Of the modes of persuasion furnished by the spoken word there are three kinds. The first kind depends on the personal character of the speaker, the second on putting the audience into a certain frame of mind; the third on the proof, or apparent proof, provided by the words of the speech itself. Persuasion is acheived by the speakers's personal character when the speech is so spoken as to make us think him credible. We believe good men more fully and more readily than others..."2 He went on to state that the qualities a person could show to help build others' confidence in his character are good sense, good moral character,

and good will. Aristotle's ideas seem especially relevant to the language classroom today. It is the position of this paper that we must look at how other cultures view character, how their emotions become aroused, and how they organize their logic in communicative settings. Our success in getting our clients to understand these things is directly related to their success in cross-cultural business.

NEGOTIATION

What is negotiation and what does it entail? One simple definition states that it "is a process by which a joint decision is made by two or more parties. The parties first verbalize contradictory demands and then move toward agreement by a process of concession making or search for new alternatives."3 Listed below are 15 components of negotiation. They are drawn from the work of Pruitt, 1981, Rubin and Brown, 1975, and Gulliver, 1979.

1--There are two or more sets of people.

2--They face each other across a negotiating table.

3--They begin with perceived differences and, if successful, end with some sort of convergence.

4--They seek an outcome acceptable to both sides.

5--There is joint decision-making, implying interdependence.

6--There are various stages in the process.

7--Decisions must be made on both substantive and procedural matters.

8--There is a movement from general issues to specific issues.

9--There is conflict, with competitive behavior inherent in the process. Influencing the other is a primary concern.

10-There is conflict resolution, with coordinative behavior inherent in the process.

11-Competitive and coordinative behavior recur throughout the process (sometimes like a pendulum swinging).

12-There is an exchange of information about facts, values, and interpretations. This is done through offering, appealing, promising, threatening, rejecting, accepting, and seeking.

13-There is a process of discovery about requirements, expectations, perceptions, and so on.

14-There is usually an adjustment of expectations and a modification of demands.

15-"If agreement has been reached, the position of each has been subtly changed, not only by the terms offered, but by its experience of the other and exposure to the other's persuasion."4

These components should help to give at least a broad framework of what goes on at the negotiation table. Negotiation is not

just conversation, but it is not a debate either. It is a process of two perceived opponents coming together to become partners in some decision-making effort.

Gulliver has worked with a seven stage model of the negotiation process.5 The stages include the search for an arena, the formulation of an agenda, the exploration of the range of differences, narrowing the differences, the preliminaries to final bargaining, the final bargaining, and, finally, the ritual confirmation. He contends that, for the most part, each stage begins either with antagonism or with coordination and then swings toward the other.

Morley and Stephenson use a three-stage model in describing negotiation and cite changing features and behaviors for each stage.6 The main requirement for stage one is to establish criteria for settlement points. Stage two moves toward an exploration of the range of possible solutions while stage three centers on making the agreements. The relationship of the negotiating groups also changes, beginning with a focus on power and then becoming one based on bargaining and finally steering toward a historical relationship.

Individuals in the model also go through transformations of roles and behaviors. From concern over the representative role, people move toward a concern about dealing with the problem, which entails developing a working relationship with the

perceived opponent. Finally, the concern focuses on making a mutually satisfying agreement. The behavior changes from explaining and criticizing at first to proposing and evaluating and then to checking, assessing, and implementing.

The negotiation itself is described as a movement from bargaining to problem-solving and then, finally, to decision-making. Each activity is present in all three stages; what changes is that as one activity becomes more dominant, the others become more subordinate.

In terms of perception, it may be said that there are two key ingredients with regard to negotiation. One relates to trust and the other relates to power. The perception of power permeates the negotiating process, both with regard to one's own position and that of the other. Generally speaking, those with powerful self-images tend to delay making concessions while those with weaker self-images will tend to either hold off until they can build their power base or else concede unilaterally. On the political scene, the U. S.-Soviet bargaining on strategic arms serves as a good example of the first two tactics. Strength against strength or strength against stalling (until the strength is back) feed the power cycle with competitive behavior.

Trust is also important in any negotiation. The more we trust another party, the more we are generally willing to work together for a common goal. Where trust is lacking, the more we

work to gain advantage over them. Negotiation then becomes a win-lose proposition rather than a win-win one. If the other side offers a concession or sends some kind of cooperative signal, trust may increase. But without some sort of reciprocity, any attempt to increase trust may only result in increased antagonism.

According to Pruitt, there are three basic strategies that may be used at any point in the process.7 The negotiator can concede a point unilaterally, engage in competitive behavior, or engage in coordinative behavior. The goal of concession is to bridge the gap between the two parties' positions. Competitive behavior is used to gain something without regard for the other. Coordinative behavior is geared to reducing tensions and working together to solve the problems.

Competitive strategies include things like putting time pressure on the other, threatening, withdrawing, deadlocking, appearing unwilling or unable to concede, weakening the other's resistence to making concessions and even encouraging positive relations in a manipulative way.

Coordinative strategies range from highly risky moves to very tentative and indirect signals. Risky moves include making a large concession, proposing a particular compromise, or taking a unilateral tension-reducing action. With such moves, one risks a loss to image, position, or information base. In other words,

these actions can lead to dramatic breakthroughs, but failure can leave one stuck out on a limb. Less risky moves involve sending indirect signals to the other, working to improve the mood of cooperation, matching positive moves by the other, and starting with relatively high demands and then slowly conceding.

The last move, starting with high demands and then slowly conceding seems at first glance to be competitive. However, if it is made in such a way that matching concessions and other coordinative tactics are employed, a perception of trust tends to build much more than if moderate demands are made and then no concessions are made. Starting high allows the negotiator a base from which to operate; it ensures that he doesn't 'give away the store'; it gives him more time to think during the process; it demonstrates his desire not to be exploited; and it gives him the opportunity to make concessions along the way, thereby building up levels of trust.

The role of language in negotiation is similar to that used in other problem-solving groups. Robert F. Bales, in his investigations of such groups, divided the relevant communication into two main categories, the task dimension and the socio-emotional dimension. The task dimension consists of questions and answers, about the broad areas of suggestions, opinions, orientation and information. The socio-emotional dimension consists of positive and negative reactions to the interaction.

Included within this category is solidarity-antagonism, tension and tension release, and agreement and disagreement.8

Bales' work serves as a strong base for us as we think through and organize activities in business and negotiation settings for our students. To probe the other party's position is central to the process. So is the ability to answer in a variety of ways, both verbally and nonverbally. One's reactions serve to signal a cooperative or competitive mode of behavior or an acceptable or unacceptable position.

CULTURE

Most of us do not grow up able to compare and appreciate the different ways that differing cultures organize people's lives. We grow up with set patterns of thinking, talking, and behaving. A big problem remains. As Barnlund and Haiman have written: "Almost everyone agrees that man's greatest facility is his ability to symbolize and share his experiences with his fellow man, but it is not always clear whether we control our symbols or they control us."9 Our culture is a very large part of our very being. It helps us to make sense of the world and to give meaning to all sorts of diverse images. But culture is also the prison of our perception. It puts limits on how and what we can view in our existence. Learning a foreign language gives us a key with which to enter another world. But whether our experience becomes mutually satisfying for all concerned or

merely a nightmare in a cultural Twilight Zone depends on our search for and understanding of the cultural styles, tendencies, beliefs and values of our business counterparts abroad.

The intent of communication is to make meanings understood in the same way by both speaker and listener. The fact of communication is that, regardless of our intent, we communicate something every time we interact with another being. Without the common cultural foundation, any attempt to make meanings common can easily become fraught with frustration. What we may see as a natural focus on the task of negotiation, others may see as rude or abusive behavior. Put simply, ignorance of those we're dealing with will result in lost business opportunities abroad and ever-increasing competition in our domestic markets.

Prosser has noted that research done on Peace Corps volunteers, involved in cross-cultural negotiation on a daily basis, indicates that "where Peace Corps volunteers expected vast differences between cultural customs, norms, and values, and psychologically prepared for these differences, they generally faced less communicative and cultural conflict than those going to apparently similar, but actually very dissimilar societies."10 Conflict is inevitable, but when it stems from ignorance it is mostly counterproductive. Far too often, as Barnlund notes, "the foreigner, without knowing it, leaves behind him a trail of

frustration, mistrust, and even hatred of which he is totally unaware."11 And Americans abroad are foreigners.

Using Japan and the U. S. to illustrate, the tendencies in Table 1 show succinctly some of the many differences that exist between our two cultures. Lessons could be done on each of the tendencies and each has a profound impact on the "national" negotiating styles. Whatever the language and culture being studied, contrasts of this sort, taught at length, can help our clients immensely. Even brief explanations, like the ones that follow, can help them to avoid some pitfalls.

One obvious difference between Americans and Japanese is the emphasis that each places on the individual and the group respectively. In Japan, there is general reluctance to give one's opinions without first sensing the group's disposition. There is a saying, "The nail that sticks up get hammered down." Group consensus is the key and the individual must struggle to become in tune with the group.

Table 1

Cultural Tendencies12

Japanese	American
Social Tendencies	
Focus on group	Focus on individual
Situation-ethics	Christian-based ethics
Concern over "face"	Concern over success
Status-conscious	Equality-conscious
Move toward consensus	Move toward compromise
Personal Tendencies	
Formal	Informal
Reserved	Spontaneous
Serious	Humorous
Patient	Impatient
Emotional, but not emotive	Emotive
Intuitive	Intellectual
Relatively private	Relatively public
Ignore inconveniences	Complain about inconveinces

Communicative Tendencies

Silent----------Talkative

Indirect----------Direct

Politeness over efficiency----------Efficiency over politeness

"yes" for harmony/understanding----------"yes" for agreement

Silence better than "no"----------"no" better than silence

Face as a mask----------Face for expression

Conversational Diplomacy----------Conversational Debate

Americans show, by comparison, an eager willingness to share opinions. "Nothing ventured, nothing gained." We have a lingering John Wayne self-image that tells us to "Stand up like a man and fight."

The characteristic of patience serves as another good example and it is one that serves the Japanese well at the negotiating table. Japanese show a cautious concern to take all sides into account before coming to a decision. There is an emphasis on the long-term effects of any decision made today. Americans, on the other hand, are more concerned about fixing whatever problem exists now. If there's a problem, we want to solve it as quickly as possible. Time is money. The emphasis is on the present, the short-term, and the bottom-line. It has been said that Japanese are slow to decide and quick to implement decisions while Americans are quick to decide, but slow to implement.

These kinds of tendencies create conflict even before words are spoken, and inasmuch as language reflects culture, our words only exacerbate the conflict. But not only are our cultural styles different, so are our conversational styles.

CONVERSATION.

The skills emphasized in conversation vary from culture to culture. Even within cultures, we know that the skills vary from situation to situation. One of the reasons is that our

interaction is the arena of competing needs. "The process of conversation displays a continual tension between two general communicative needs—the need to communicate as efficiently as possible and the need to be polite."13 Efficient communication and effective communication are not the same. Politeness concerns, defined by the culture, become imposed on the communicative act. With it, a whole set of conventions, routines, and formulae become an important and indispensable part of language. The how of our speech can become as important as the what. The style can become as important as the content. Thus, there is a seeming paradox: EFFICIENT COMMUNICATION IS OFTEN INEFFECTIVE WHILE EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION IS OFTEN INEFFICIENT.

Conversational structure is ritualized and routinized to some extent, yet that organization remains, like negotiation, slippery to analyze. Conversational strategies, like negotiation strategies, must often be calculated while the interaction is taking place. Whether a particular strategy is used or not used will signal the conversants to follow one course of action or another. So, although there is a structuring of the strategies used, there is also much ambiguity as to which ones will actually be used in any particular conversation.

The term 'gambit' has been used by several writers to cover many conversational strategies. Beneke notes that: "Gambits are phrases used mainly for the regulation of social relationships

and the structuring of discourse. They 'take the edge off' what is being said, 'soften the blow' of critical remarks, or 'lubricate' the conversation. A typical example...is to say 'You may have a point there, but...' instead of the more critical 'You are wrong' or even 'Rubbish'".14 Put another way, they signal our level of cooperation with the other and, at the same time, prepare the other for the coming remarks. As such, they represent strategies of interaction that our business clients need. These markers range from interrupting to hesitating, from initiating a conversation to ending one, from completely disagreeing to conceding, from generalizing about a topic to picking it apart, and so on. Table 2 shows a few examples.

Table 2

Examples of Conversational Management Strategies

1--ANNOUNCING/TAKING THE FLOOR---Guess what!?! / Did you know that...

2--REDIRECTING THE CONVERSATION---By the way / That reminds me / Where were we? / Anyway

3--HESITATING---well / You know / well, let me think / well, how shall I put it?

4--TAKING THE FLOOR/INTERRUPTING---You can say that again... / Aw, hold it right there! / Wait a second / I'd like to say something here.

5--RETAKING THE FLOOR---What I meant to say is... / Let me put it another way.

6--CONTROLLING THE FLOOR AS LISTENER---Mh-hum / And? / Really? / You don't say! / I know what you mean.

7--REPHRASING---In other words... / What you're saying, then, is...

8--GENERALIZING---On the whole / All things considered / By and large

9--GIVING OPINIONS---I think / I'd say / It seems to me that...

10-TRYING TO PERSUADE---Wouldn't you agree... / You can't deny...

11-DEFINING IMPORTANT POINTS---The main thing is... / The point is...

12-DISMISSING POINTS---That's beside the point! / That's irrelevant.

13-AGREEING---You're absolutely right / I'd go along with that.

14-AGREEING, BUT DISAGREEING--Granted, but... / Nevertheless...

15-DISAGREEING---Not necessarily / I can't accept that / On the contrary

16-PIGGY-BACKING---And another thing / And what's more...

17-GETTING TO THE NITTY GRITTY---To tell the truth / Frankly

18-ENDING A DISCUSSION ON A TOPIC---Well, all I can say is...

19-CLOSING A CONVERSATION---Well, I'll let you go now / Well, I guess I should get going

These strategies seem to appear in most languages, but the appropriateness of using them varies greatly. A Japanese ESL student may need to harden his language when an Arabic ESL student may need to soften his language. An American learning Japanese would generally need to soften and formalize the language.

American businesspeople, especially people in marketing, know well about how to open conversations in the U.S. But when put into cross-cultural situations, there is sometimes trouble. The ace communicator at home suddenly becomes, without knowing it, the insensitive bore abroad. Learning the conversational styles of the target culture enables people to adapt their communication and self-presentation and gives them a better chance to succeed in their work.

CROSS-CULTURAL NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES

To negotiate successfully with businesspeople from other cultures requires more work than domestic negotiation. Several examples may help to illustrate.

A classic case of insensitivity involved the negotiations between a Japanese company, which intended to purchase an American factory from a rival, and the American leader of the local union.15 At one turbulent session, the union leader angrily mentioned Pearl Harbor and told the Japanese, in no uncertain terms, where to go. This may be common in the U.S.

labor-management relations, but the Japanese are not accustomed to such behavior. They flew back to Japan, leaving the union leader with the prospect of an eminent shut-down of the plant and the loss of his job. Clearly, his tactics were confrontational and counterproductive. Realizing the seriousness of his outburst, the union man then wrote to the Japanese, apologizing, and asked them to return to the negotiations. The good news is that the talks were completed successfully and a tentative relationship has begun.

A story of effectiveness relates to the city of Battle Creek, Michigan and its committment to having an international industrial park. As of 1981, they had a dozen foreign companies operating in their city, mostly Germans and Japanese. Though nobody associated with the developments speaks Japanese, various leaders in the community have studied Japanese business and culture, have taken trips to Japan, and have learned to have patience when dealing with the Japanese. Their experiences have generally been enriching and rewarding for all.

These two contrasting approaches go to the root of the problem. In the first, no attempt was made to go beyond an intracultural common sense. In the second, every attempt has been made to adapt the communicative strategies to fit the cross-cultural situation. They have had the vision to adjust to the

changing realities and to do what has been necessary to make the contact mutually satisfying for all concerned.

With regard to cultural tendencies in the negotiation setting itself, there are a number of differences between Americans and other nationalities. Table 3 indicates a few of them between Americans and Japanese.

Table 3 16

Cultural Tendencies in Negotiations------Japanese and Americans

Matter (source)	Japanese	American
Who negotiates? (1)	A senior leader with technical staff assisting	A technically competent person with position-- not necessarily senior
General emphasis regarding atmosphere	On harmony. Establishing &/or maintaining relations	On problem-solving Doing what needs to be done to satisfy desires
On the issue of status (1)	Respect it.	Downplay it
Concern for good emotional climate (2)	Major concern	Perfunctory concern
On getting down to business (3)	Indirectly	Directly
Conversational style (3)	Polite and relatively passive	Assertive and relatively argumentative

Common stereotypes as viewed by the other (3)	Strong, unfair, aloof	Strong, undisciplined, pushy
View toward compromise (1)	Some room for movement but consensus is the key—need to check back with others	It's the name of game--give--and--take
View toward contracts (3)	Suspicious of them, though they know that Americans want them. It's part of the process not the end product	Once signed, they're final. Everything leads up to them.
General focus (3)	Patience	Impatience
Major concern (3)	"Face" / image. Good of the company over long-term	The bottom-line Good of the company over short-term

The Japanese typically send a leader with seniority who has a general competence. He will usually be accompanied by assistants with expertise in the specific area of negotiation. Americans, on the other hand, sometimes send a person with position and competence. Seniority is not necessarily a concern and the representative may or may not have assistants along.

On general atmosphere, Japanese are much more inclined to take in the totality of the situation, taking both the longer view of the negotiations and of the potential relationship and also looking at the chemistry of the relationship. Americans are well-known for getting down to the business at hand. The view is pragmatic in the short-term, sometimes provincial in the long-term. Status plays a part in the overall mood and, again, we play it differently. The Japanese honor and respect it while Americans often ignore it.

Our styles of conversing are at odds as well. The Japanese are concerned with politeness and nuance while Americans are concerned with action, with getting things done, and with winning points wherever possible. It is not that the Japanese don't want to win points; it's just that they do it in more subtle ways. Our love of competition is also illustrated by our views toward compromise. Compromise now is preferred to a longer stalemate. In Japan, however, the consensus-building process within the company causes a reluctance to compromise too much at the

negotiating table. However, once the relationship is on secure ground, more is done to accomodate the business partner. This is not to say that Japanese don't compromise; it does suggest, however, that there is more checking back with headquarters in Japan than is sometimes the case in the U.S.

The view toward contracts widens into a broader view of the entire cultures. Japanese are more concerned with the person than with the piece of paper and with the relationship with the other company than with a formal contract. It is only one part of an ongoing process. Americans, on the other hand, are more "discrete-point" oriented. A deal is a deal. Once we sign the paper we live by the paper. We consider ourselves a nation of laws, not of people. It is no accident that the U.S. has many times the number of lawyers that Japan has. There have, of course, been a few changes in the last few years with renegotiated labor contracts and the like, but whether this is a trend or merely an aberration remains to be seen.

The last major concern reflects another major tendency. Japanese 'live' in their companies to a much greater extent than Americans do. As such, their whole perspective becomes a long-term one. A negotiation relates not only to the negotiator and the company's short-term profits, but also to the company as a whole and its long-term survival. Because larger numbers of people are involved in the decisions early on, decisions take

longer, but there is much less resistance to the final decisions that are made. The opposite is sometimes the case within many American companies.

20 THINGS EVERY CROSS-CULTURAL NEGOTIATOR SHOULD KNOW AND DO

The history of our country has been one of action and often of getting away from others. Physical and psychic space are extremely important to Americans as is winning. "Going for the gold" is what it is all about--or so we sometimes are led to think. What business students are often not taught is that the persuasive gymnastics necessary to win arguments at home are often out of place overseas. Persuasion is done differently elsewhere. What follows, then, are 20 "strategies" that can improve the level of American negotiating abroad.19 For simplicity, I have grouped them into three categories: general, personal, and language-related. These are not neat categories by any means, but they do help in organizing the advice.

General Strategies:

1--Don't be afraid of using experts and other assistance. Our individualstic tendencies hurt us overseas.

2--Be aware of status and formality customs abroad. Neglect here can doom the negotiations before they even begin.

3--Be aware of the advantages of having to check with headquarters. We often yearn for independence while others some-

times use their dependence on headquarters for strategic advantage.

4--Learn to deal with linking strategies. We often work on one point at a time, conceding points as we go. Without tangible progress, we can get frustrated. Others, however, are used to discussing all issues before conceding any. Movement is not necessarily progress.

5--Learn what the other side means when it makes a deal. It is often quite different from what we mean.

6--Set high goals, take some risks, and concede slowly. We must have some idea of what we want before we get there and then need to work through the stages with the savvy of a fox.

7--Realize the dual nature of negotiation. It is part competition and part cooperation. Each has its place in the process. We need to know how to manage both.

Personal Strategies:

8--Learn to be patient. This is not just a cultural or personal tendency. It is also a key word in negotiation. It is so important that it has been labelled a "supertactic"18 It is difficult to persuade without first establishing rapport and that takes time. When we strive to get to the point, we miss out on valuable information about the other and become perceived as abrasive and untrustworthy.

9--Learn to accept ambiguity. Few things are totally clear in cross-cultural environments. Failing to account for that leaves us both frustrated and ineffective.

10-Learn to be flexible and adaptable. Once we accept the ambiguity of the situation, we can blend in where possible while still protecting the interests of the company. If we aren't flexible at crucial points, the negotiations will likely fail.

11-Be willing to get involved with the other. To trust others and to have them trust us, both in negotiations and after the agreements, we must be able to take the extra step to personalize the relationship. "It's only business" may work at home, but it goes against the grain in many other cultures.

12-Be sensitive to what motivates the other party. Being aware of their needs and their perceptions allows us to make better use of our other strategies in coming to an acceptable agreement.

Language-Related "Strategies":

13-Learn some of the language and communicative style of the other party. Even a few basic phrases help to lubricate the encounter. The importance of fluent language skills differs considerably from culture to culture, but the importance of knowing the other's communicative style seems universal.

14-Learn how to listen. This is not only a language skill; it is also a psychological skill. Often, it is not the language that blocks the communication, but our perceptual prisons. As Barnlund and Haiman have written, "Effective listening is not passive. It means abandoning one's own premises temporarily in order to step inside the assumptive world of another human being. The good listener is able to enter the 'frame of reference' of his associates. He shares their perceptions primarily to understand, rather than to disprove them..."19 To listen well to someone from another culture, we need to learn as much as we can about their culture.

15-Learn how to be comfortable with silence. This differs greatly from culture to culture, but it can be a vital skill. While Japanese silence is not a strategy per se, it works the same as a strategy because of its impact on Americans. Our discomfort in dealing with silence in discussions leaves us vulnerable to either concession-making or to verbalizing needlessly (and possibly giving away information that is best left covered).

16-Learn to probe without persisting. Pressure tactics often fail overseas, but probing in the right places in delicate ways can be very effective.

17-Learn how to use indirectness in discussions. Smooth negotiators know how to deal with nuances and how to frame

their remarks so that directions can be hinted at without making commitments.

18-Avoid using threatening or polarizing words as a general rule (there are exceptions). Whatever short-term benefit is achieved by using them can quickly evaporate as the discussions proceed.

19-Learn to ask and to answer tough questions. There are different kinds of questions and various ways to answer or avoid answering questions. All of which are central to the process.

20-Practice negotiating. Simulating the experience of cross-cultural negotiating can help to sharpen skills and also increase the predictive abilities of the team with regard to possible moves and perceptions of the other team.

With these 20 points, especially the latter ones, the relevance of the language classroom to the world of business should be a bit more clear. As one observer of negotiating behavior has written: "In virtually every negotiation, whether large or small, important or trivial, it is, in the final analysis, your spoken or written words that will ultimately be the factor that determines whether or not you accomplish your negotiating objectives. Accordingly, language is what you should spend the greatest portion of your time perfecting so that your effective use of it becomes as habitual as walking, sitting, or

eating."20 With that concern for language, I will now turn to what we can do to directly help our clients.

THE CLASSROOM

How then can we as educators working in the classroom help businesspeople in their cross-cultural negotiations? For simplicity's sake, I'll list the things we can do under three headings: understanding, skills, and attitudes (or U-S-A).

Understanding refers to the awareness of the other culture and of the systems and values in it. It also refers to a greater awareness of one's own culture and one's own character. Values, tendencies, strengths and weaknesses need to be covered in the classroom. Greater understanding can lead to better predictions about what will happen.

Skills refer to adjustment skills,for those going overseas for extended periods, to negotiating strategies, and to 'gambits' or conversational management strategies.

Attitudes refer to the area not covered above. For we can understand someone and then develop skills to deal with them but still not have the appropriate attitudes with which to ensure good working relationships over the long-term. Sensitivity to the concerns of others, treating other cultural values with respect, avoiding condescension, and similar attitudes are difficult to "teach", but they must remain as part of our overall task.

UNDERSTANDING

Five general ways of dealing with the increase of our students' information include lecture/discussions, films and videotapes, workbooks and self-assessment tests, task-oriented group assignments and presentations, and outside "talk to" activities.

Lectures and discussions are not new and the burden on the teacher to make it all come alive is great. Nevertheless, with a well-organized reading selection and a commitment on the part of the teacher to delve into the meaty areas of concern, this format retains its usefulness. Discussions can focus on such things as social problems, proverbs, business conditions, the process of and skills needed for cross-cultural negotiation as well as non-verbal and other communicative tendencies relevant to the interaction. Culture capsules can be used for key areas of possible conflict. (See Appendix A). Films and video tapes can cover some of the same territory in more interesting ways, provided they are available and you have access to them.

Task-oriented group assignments and/or presentations can help our clients to a much greater degree than the one-to-many set-up of the lecture format. Having each person read several articles with the responsibility of reporting on one of them can aid in the process as can getting small groups to organize more elaborate role-plays or presentations. Naturally, this depends

on the time you have available and the nature of your clientele, i.e. it would be easier to do in the college classroom than in special sessions for businessmen about to go overseas. (See Appendix B for a sample reading list.)

Worksheets and self-assessment tests can be painless for all concerned and still be quite productive in achieving our goals. Culture assimilators related directly to business and, if possible, to negotiation serve us very well. (See Appendix C). "Rate Yourself as a Negotiator"21 fits extremely well both as grist for the discussion mill and also as a lead-in to our work on language geared to that task. (See Appendix D for a sample.)

"Talk to" activities can be utilized in some situations. For example, Appendix E has been useful for ESL students in the U.S. These are beneficial not only for the new information received through the exchanges, but also for general language practice in "the real world".

SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

Included under this heading are adjustment skills for those going overseas, negotiation strategies, and conversation strategies as well as the regular language study. Adjustment is very important, but I will not discuss it here.

With regard to negotiation strategies and, for the most part, all the skills, there is a definite need to "trade the culture of the classroom for the culture of the boardroom".22 We

need to tap into the strengths of our clients and design our lessons around their lives. Fortunately, there is quite a bit of material already made for us, at least in ESL. Heavy use of case-studies, simulations, and role-plays geared for the international business community will find our clients more open and able to learn and our classes more lively. While they have more time to act as decision-makers, we have more time to observe, take notes and react to their actions.

Case-studies involve the students analyzing and discussing a particular business issue, first separately and then in small groups. They must look at the problem, the facts, and the opinions and biases of the actual players involved and then try to come up with alternative ways of dealing with it. Discussions give them the opportunity to become involved in offering solutions and refuting them, asking questions and answering them, all of which are central to the negotiation process. The Harvard Business School has many cases available for public use.

Simulations are also a vital ingredient in any program. The more practice our clients can get in cross-cultural negotiating under our guidance, the better their mastery of the strategies will be. Simulations allow the teacher the chance to step back and note verbal and non-verbal miscues, competitive and cooperative moves, gambits, and so on. Discussion after the simulations can delve into perceptions, reasons certain moves

were made, errors in language and behavior, and ways to improve upon the performance in later negotiations. If videotape recorders are available, the sessions can be taped and then analyzed for use of various strategies and behaviors.

There are several commercial videotapes on the market relating to cross-cultural business and negotiation. "The Bellcrest File" is a 13 part series dealing with the auto industry, which affords us the chance to combine business skills with language skills. "Bid for Power" is another tape series designed expressly for negotiating.

Brief role-plays geared to negotiation allow the students to practice specific skills with teacher assistance and modeling and/or correction if necessary. They can be used prior to or after the full simulations. Even other non-business role-plays, such s bilateral government negotiations or "A Day at the U. N." can be used to emphasize cross-cultural skills. All of the above techniques get the students actively involved in discussing and negotiating in ways similar to what they will actually face in business. In effect, we use their talents to lead them where we want them to go.

Another variation on the theme, that is both more specialized and fits a narrower audience, involves the use of board games. "Monopoly", "The Business Game", "Business Strategies", and "Bureaucracy" can have value for certain

students if we surround them with broader meaning and relevance. However, without considerable teacher care, they can dissolve into a waste of time.

The area of conversational management skills, already mentioned, is a critical one for businesspeople. Until recently, there has not been very much done in this area in the way of teachable materials. In addition, the traditional classroom environment is full of artificial discourse patterns. It is the teacher who controls the floor, asks most of the questions, and does most of the initiating. Students are often left with the reactive role of practicing patterns or giving information. This is all the more reason that the "culture of the classroom" must be changed. As Kramsch writes: "Students...are often intimidated by the competitiveness of the conversational context. Each speaker speaks without really responding or reacting to the other's statement; each takes care not to interrupt and not to repeat. In fact, neither one is able to listen attentively, for they are formulating their own future statements."23 This then is a key area, both in trying to make sure that the discourse is reasonably smooth and in working on listening skills. The teacher's role must be changed into that of a facilitator, or consultant, or partner with expertise in the language area.

One way to go about this is to briefly explain a few key strategies at each session and then let the students practice them in a discussion related to a cultural or business issue. Another way is to make up brief exercises (see Appendix F) that explain several strategies and call for limited and controlled practice with them. When enough of these phrases have been mastered, debates and structured discussions can be used to further polish them. For example, most Japanese ESL learners need to harden their language somewhat and increase their use of gestures, eye contact, and tonal variations. For Americans studying Japanese, it would be necessary to concentrate on softening the language and increasing the use of routines.

Another way of dealing with practice debates, discussions, and negotiations is to use a checklist (see Appendix G) along with a videotape recorder. If the strategies are checked over several sessions, in which each student has responsibility for various and alternating strategies, we can get a fairly good idea of who has mastered what. This gives us a clearer focus for future work with those students. For more advanced students, using this checklist as they listen to others could be helpful, both for spotting weaknesses in the speech of others and for reinforcing their own inclinations to use them. Simplified versions could be used for intermediate levels.

For the whole area of asking and answering different types of questions, group competitions can be held where that is the focus. For example, two people can be the "main characters" by getting up in front of the others and reading a joint policy statement, or going through a brief dialogue. The rest of the class can be divided into two groups. Each group is given a short time, e.g. three minutes, to ask (and have properly answered) as many questions as they can. The other group will then get an equal amount of time. That process can be repeated for more practice. This is a very simple yet very effective and lively exercise for training our clients in a very important negotiating skill.

Non-verbal communication needs to be understood and it also needs to be practiced. For example, the art of shaking hands "American-style" is very alien to many cultures. However, it remains an important subconscious, and sometimes conscious concern for many people in business. Our role is not only one of teaching language, it is one of teaching communication skills all across the board.

ATTITUDES

Some would say that this is an area better left for preachers than for persuaders or educators in the business world. I would agree with those who state that it is not our job to convert our clients into lovers of the target culture. But one

of our goals should be to instill in our clients a respect for the other culture and an empathy for their counterparts abroad. We must do our part to wean them away from ethnocentrism because that narrowmindedness can ultimately lead them to poorer results in the negotiations.

There are various cultural sensitivity simulations on the market. One of special interest is the Ba-Fa/Ba-Fa game, in which the students divide into two groups. Separately, the groups are instructed in a new language and cultural heritage. One group's culture and language totally revolves around bargaining and achievement. There is no concern for emotion or for tradition. Conversely, the other group does do some trading, but it is almost a meaningless exercise. It relates more to friendly relations than to personal achievement. During the actual simulations, each group goes about its own business. However, two or three "spies" from each group are allowed to observe and participate in the other for short periods of time, all without any training in the other culture or language. By the end of the simulation, every person has become acculturated into his or her own group and has also had the opportunity to "travel" to the other culture.

What happens in all of this is a simulated version of (and to those who actually go through it, it seems real) culture shock. People learn firsthand that old behavior will not do, but

they are left without many clues as to how to cope with the new conditions. Simulations like this can help our clients internalize some of the problems to be faced better than any lecture or discussion. These experiences, when coupled with the discussions of their feeings and perceptions and with later work with language and negotiating strategies, can help to broaden their brotherly, or sisterly, horizons.

CONCLUSION

It seems a truism in industry that the people with cross-cultural understanding are often without power while the people with power are often without the cross-cultural understanding. But as the growth of world trade continues, and interdependence spirals, the more we must know about other lands and peoples. It is not enough just to know what their customs are and what their styles are; we must also strive, where possible, to learn why they are as they are and how we can best adapt ourselves to their circumstances.

To summarize I'd like to propose a formula for everyone to consider. It is as follows: E+E+E=BCCE. Exposure plus education plus empathy equal better cross-cultural effectiveness.

APPENDIX A

Culture Capsule---The American "Yes" and The Japanese "Yes"

When a Japanese listens to another person speaking, he generally responds frequently, either with short words or phrases ("yes" or "it is so") or even grunts to let the speaker know that the listener is interested in the conversation and can understand what the speaker is trying to say. As such, saying "yes" is often a form of politeness.

In the U.S., however, the "yes" means something very different. When Americans say "yes", it usually means "I agree with what you've just said." If an American disagrees with something you've just said, it is common for them to say something like "yes, but..." and then say why they think you are wrong. Americans are not afraid of saying "no" either. They say it on many occasions. So, when Americans say "yes", it tends to be a form of agreement rather than a form of courtesy.

This difference in style shows a major difference in how Japanese and Americans talk to one another. Japanese are usually more concerned about who they are talking to than with what is being said. Americans on the other hand, are more concerned with what is being said than with who thay are talking to. Japanese emphasize feelings while Americans emphasize facts.

This is true in business, education, government, the family, and in many other situations. In the U.S., college students will disagree with their professors, workers will dispute orders given to them by bosses, etc. There are social dangers in doing this, but, in general, Americans expect and even desire people to say what they think and feel much more than Japanese do.

This difference in the way Japanese and Americans say "yes" has sometimes caused big problems in communication cross-culturally. Without an understanding of the differences here, many simple problems can quickly turn into big problems. That is true in politics and it is also true in business agreements, negotiations, and in the on-going relationships of professional people.

Questions for Comprehension and Discussion----------The "Yes"

1--What do Japanese often do when listening to someone speak?
2--Why do Japanese say "yes" so often in conversations?
3--Do Japanese ever say "no" when they disagree with someone?
4--What is the major difference between Americans and Japanese in the way they talk to people?
5--Explain, in your own words, the differences between Japanese and Americans concerning facts and feelings in conversations.
6--What do Americans expect others to do when speaking?

7--Why is the difference in how Japanese and Americans use the word "yes" important for businessmen to understand?

8--When would a Japanese be likely to use the word "yes" as a form of agreement?

9--What significance does all of this have for the purpose of negotiation?

APPENDIX B

A Sampling of Articles for American and Japanese Businessmen

(from the popular press)

"Drinking as a Way of Life: Japanese Alcoholism is Reaching Epidemic Proportions." Time, 5/8/78, P. 36.

"An Industrial Nirvana." Time, 9/8/80, pp. 47+

Byron, Christopher reported by Chang, S. and Reingold, Edwin. "How Japan Does It." Time, 3/30/81, PP. 4-11.

"How the Japanese Manage in the U.S." Fortune, 6/5/81, pp. 97-103.

"Japan's Strategies for the '80's." Business Week, PP. 29-79.

Krisher, Bernard. "Japan Opens Some Doors to Imports." Fortune, 1/25/82, pp. 47+.

"Grits with Sushi." Time, 1/24/83, p. 61.

"Japan: A Nation in Search for Itself." Time, 8/1/83, Speical Issue on Japan.

Smith, Lee. "Korea's Challenge to Japan." Fortune, 2/16/84, pp. 94-104.

APPENDIX C

Culture Assimilator----------Japanese Company/American Union

One winter an American manufacturing company persuaded a Japanese company to buy one of its factories that it had been planning to shut down. Both sides were pleased with the agreement.

But there still had to be discussions with the union leaders. The union men were suspicious of the Japanese moving in, because they knew about the Japanese reputation for opposing unions. Sure enough, in the negotiations to get union agreement, they reached a roadblock concerning which workers would do certain kinds of tasks.

By the summer, the union leader got frustrated and angry. At one session, he mentioned Pearl Harbor and told the Japanese where to go.

The union leader soon learned that the Japanese flew back to Tokyo. The American company resumed harsh talk of closing down the plant.

Why did the Japanese fly back and what should the union man do to secure an agreement?

- -

A--The Japanese flew back because it seemed obvious that the union didn't want them there. The union man should write

them a letter clearly delineating the union's final offer, or, in other words, play hardball with them and still give them a chance to respond.

B---The Japanese flew back to Tokyo because the situation seemed hopeless for them and with the continuing union opposition, they began having second thoughts about the initial decision. The union man should send them a letter expressing a modified position on the worker/task issue. By showing a willingness to compromise, the union man is playing a shrewd negotiating game.

C---The Japanese flew back to Tokyo because of a sense of outrage at the rudeness of the union man. He should not be too concerned with this though and concentrate on the American company once again. Any number of tactics could be used to force the American company to either keep the plant open or to have the company force a more reasonable position from the Japanese.

D---The Japanese flew back to Tokyo because they were shocked by the behavior of the union man and out of a strategic sense of balance. The union man should 'bite his tongue' and write an apopogetic letter to the Japanese, asking them to come back to the States.

Explanations of the Answers to the "Japanese Company/American Union" Assimilator

***This is taken from a real case. The "best answer" represents what actually happened in that case. Conceivably, the other answers could work in other situations.

A---If you chose A, you are only partially right. Yes, it seemed obvious that the union didn't want them there, but it's more complicated than that. The union man is used to American negotiations where things get extremely heated, a break is taken, and then everyone comes back for more. His "hardball" stance doesn't seem likely to produce a return by the Japanese.

B---If you chose B, you are partially right. It is possible that the Japanese went back because it seemed hopeless and they could've had second thoughts. BUT Japanese decision-making is consensus-oriented and a decision to walk out after the session and tying that into second thoughts about the whole project seems a bit uncharacteristic of Japanese. However, by the union leader expressing a modified positon on the worker issue, he might be able to cause a favorable response on the Japanese part. The union man would make his own bargaining position a bit weaker by this concession, but that might be necessary for the survival of the plant and the union.

C---If you chose C, you may be partially right on why they went back, but you recommendation for the union leader seems weak.

- Because Japanese are so concerned with personal relations in business, it seems rather short-sighted to ignore the rudeness and to concentrate on the American company. As far as the union's power over the American company, it doesn't seem to have too much at this point in time. This union leader seems headed for the unemployment line.

D---If you chose D, you are right. This is what did occur in the actual case. Japanese are loathe to walk away from negotiations, but the shock allowed them to make a strategic move. The union man did, in fact, write a letter of apology and asked the Japanese to come back. They did and the agreement was signed a month later. An interesting point (refer to B above) is that the work rules agreed upon were the same as the ones the union had with the American company. However, the union did agree to increased automation at the plant. The Japanese negotiator has suggested to the union man that he try to come up with ways to enhance the working environment at the plant---to which the union man smiled. A tentative peace has begun.

APPENDIX D

Rate Yourself as a Negotiator (Karass, 1974)

(a sampling of questions from the test)

2--How uncomfortable do you feel when facing direct conflict?

a--Extremely uncomfortable (-10)

b--Very uncomfortable (-5)

c--Don't like it but face it (+10)

d--Enjoy the challenge somewhat (+10)

e--Welcome the opportunity (-5)

7--What kind of deal do you go for?

a--A good deal for both parties (0)

b--A better deal for you (+10)

c--A better deal for him (-10)

d--A very good deal for you and better than no deal for him (+5)

e--Every man for himself (and every woman for herself) (-5)

9--When a deal you made turns out to be quite bad for the other party do you let him renegotiate a better deal?

a--Willingly (+6)

b--Sometimes (+6)

c--Reluctantly (0)

d--Hardly ever (-5)

e--It's his problem (-10)

42-How do you feel about taking risks that affect your career?

a--Take considerably larger risks than most people (+5)

b--Somewhat more risks than most (+10)

c--Somewhat less risk than most people (0)

d--Take slight risks on occasion but not much (-3)

e--Rarely take career risks (-10)

APPENDIX E

Talk to an American Businessman Assignment

Find the answers to the following questions. If possible, discuss the parallels and contrasts with business patterns in your own country and report your findings to the class.

1---What does "the bottom-line" mean? How important is it in American business?

2---What is a "mid-career switch"? How common is it in the U.S.?

3---What does "sweeten the pot" mean? When should such a term be used?

4---What does "being bullish" mean? What is the opposite term? Which one of the two terms describe your respondent? Why?

5---How is the management style of many of the High-Tech companies different from that of the old-line industries? Why is it different?

6---What political party in the U.S. is big business usually associated with? Why? What does the other major party represent?

7---What group of people seem especially worried about the coming revolution in the use of robots in business? Why?

8---What is the Teamsters? What kind of reputation does it have?

9---Who was Horatio Alger? What does his story say about American Business?

10--What does the American businessman usually think of when he hears the term "loophole"?

APPENDIX F

Innuendo and Diplomatic Response

Innuendo: "Rumor has it that..."

This is used when you want to hint at something that you're not sure about and want more information about. The above phrase can be used in both positive and negative situations, but "innuendo" involves some bad thoughts about another's character or reputation.

Diplomatic Response: "As far as I know..." / "As I understand it..."

This is used when you want to soften your response by implying that you might not have all the facts, but on the basis of the facts that you do have, you can state an opinion.

Example: A-"Rumor has it that your company bribed foreign officials to sell its defective products overseas."

B-"As far as I know, and I was just briefed this morning, that is totally untrue."

Practice: Divide up into pairs or small groups and practice the following situations. Then make up some of your own.

1---A company may be dumping pollutants into a city's water supply. (The press secretary responds)

2---A company is possibly selling its products cheaper overseas than it is at home. (The president responds)

3---Some women in your company claim that you discriminate against women and minorities in management positions. (You are the C.E.O.)

APPENDIX G

Checklist of Conversational Management Strategies

Strategy	Students	Totals
Controlling the Floor		
Openers----------		
Redirecting----------		
Hesitating devices----------		
Taking the floor----------		
Listening control cues----------		
Presenting and Pushing Views		
Presenting (opinion, concern)---		
Pushing (persuading, dismissing, judging)----------		
Responding		
greeing (strongly, slightly, etc.)		
Agreeing, but disagreeing-------		
Reassuring, but not committing--		
Disagreeing (softly, strongly)--		
Checking for Comprehension		
Leave-Taking		
Summarizing----------		
Initial & Final Overture--------		

Miscellaneous Strategies

Diplomatically criticizing------

Piggy-backing----------

Getting to the Nitty Gritty-----

Giving exceptions----------

***Totals per Student

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12 Reischauer (1977); Vogul (1979); Prosser (1978); Glenn (1981); Barnlund (1975); Suzuki et al (1960); Fisher (1980); Casse (1982) Ouchi (1981); Pascale and Athos

(1981); Personal experience

13 Laver, 1981:290

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15 Grits with Sushi, Japanese tires in Tennessee, TIME, anuary 24, 1983.

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HARAGEI: A COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGY FOR JAPANESE AND AMERICANS

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Haragei: A Communicative Strategy for Japanese and Americans

Haragei is a strategy used in communicating by the Japanese among themselves. Americans, although able to use similar strategies of their own, do not name them as the Japanese do. Haragei may be explained as a technique for solving a problem through negotiation between two individuals without the use of direct words. One party does not reveal to the other party what is in his hara (guts or gut feeling), but he unmistakably and effectively communicates his purpose, desire, or intention through haragei.

Psychology, intuition, and knowledge of the other party's personality, background, and what he knows about the other party are essential. Only people with plenty of experience and cool nerves can make it succeed. However, much communication between Japanese in high positions is through haragei (Mitsubishi, 1983:58-60).

Haragei is made possible by the vertical relationships, a need for harmony, and the homogeneity of the Japanese people. This hierarchical society has spawned a phrase, ishin-denshin, "what the mind thinks, the heart transmits." The many formalities, conventions, and common standards developed in a society which gives priority to harmonious relations makes it easy to understand what goes on in the mind of the other person. Therefore, to the

Westerner, the Japanese sometimes seem to have telepathic powers because, so often, communication among Japanese is achieved without the use of words (Mitsubishi, 1983:68-70).

The word haragei, literally meaning acting, gei, on guts, hara, alone, perhaps came from the tightening of the stomach muscles, a natural physical reaction in vital situations, e.g., the possibility of decapitation by a samurai in the feudal era. Today this physical fear has been replaced by the fear of losing millions of dollars of business.

Haragei is a word known by the man in the Tokyo street as a communication strategy that is used by politicians and big business executives in Japan. One of the key factors in this strategy is silence over an indeterminate length of time varying according to the situation.

Bob Sievers, the chief executive of DuPont in Tokyo, said (about negotiation sessions):

> 'You get some strange answer or just silence. If there's silence, just sit. Don't try to fill the space with noise. Just sit and sit.' Sievers doodles to fill the time and reduce the temptation to talk. The silence can last as long as five minutes. Then Sievers sometimes adjourns the meeting because of a deadlock. 'It takes a lot of patience to do business here' (Sharpe, 1983:1).

This is not empty silence, but rather is a discreet meta-message, the Japanese ma or "pregnant silence."

Japanese businessmen who use haragei must be sensitive to the ma or meta-message and must also be able to feel the empathy between the people involved. Mr. Sievers was unable to develop any sense of empathy towards his negotiation partners and so the Japanese attempt at haragei failed. If Mr. Sievers had understood the dynamics of this silent communication, he may have been able to use his own style of haragei as a strategy to end the "deadlock." For example, he could ask follow-up questions or make comments designed to persuade the Japanese to tell more of their considerations. He could also make a comment not related to business just to break the tension.

Logic, cogent verbalizing, or articulation of specific points are out of place. The logical build-up of specifics which intend to convince the other side of the rightness of your position is viewed negatively within the framework of harmony and cooperation in which Japanese see negotiation.

> Top (Japanese) salesmen of stocks and bonds often turn out to be shy talkers... Emphasis on logic often results in less emphasis on sensitivity or the intuition needed for business haragei (Matsumoto, 1978:4).

Another key to haragei is its situational nature. It is more likely to occur in crucial "win or lose" (live or die in feudal days) situations where stalemates or

termination may occur. Matsumoto (1978) divided *haragei* into two varieties based on this situational nature, "hot" referring to critical situations where breakdown is imminent; and "cool" referring to less critical situations where the meta-message or silence of *haragei* replaces direct talk.

Euphemistic overly vague language is another hallmark of this strategy. Examples of vague phrases are: *so desu ne* (agreement but semantically equivalent to silence), *shō ga nai* (it can't be helped), *zensho shimasu* (I'll do my best), *hai, hai* (yes, yes--although no agreement is implied), and *saa* or *maa* (well ... potential disagreement). These superficially agreeable but misleading phrases provide cover for symbolic meta-messages and other verbal artistries.

Cool *haragei* uses both techniques, pregnant silence or *ma* and vague euphemistic language, in situations that are not at a point of breakdown, but merely substitute for direct verbalization. One example from Japan is appropriate for the use of euphemism and meta-message.

> The Japanese movie, "*Kareinaru Ichizoku*," dealing mainly with the probable collusion between big business and politics in a merger of city banks (an actual story), portrays a vivid example of how *haragei* works cozily in a sensitive business talk in a cozy room of a restaurant.
>
> The plausible harageistic dialogue in the movie goes like this: the Finance Minister *hara*-talks:

'A beautiful rock garden.' (Introduction.) The president of a city bank hara-answers: 'Yes.' The Minister: 'Only one huge rock.' (Analysis: It's a shame. A merger is needed.)

The banker: 'I'm afraid, yes.' (I'm glad you said that. I can cooperate, if you engineer the merger.) The Minister: 'I want another rock that matches the garden.' (You know the going rate or unit of the political donation is 100 million yen, don't you?) 'Yes. I'll manage to get another one.' (I'll see to it you get the payment of an additional 100 million yen.) (Matsumoto, 1978:10).

In this dialogue, the finance minister begins the meta-messages with "a beautiful rock garden." The next mention of rock, "one huge rock," changes the connotational reference of "rock" to merger, while the next rock in "I want another rock" changes the connotation again to political donation. The bank president accepts this with, "I'll manage to get another one," referring to a political payoff.

This euphemistic use of language is matched in many societies, including the American society. When John Dean begar to testify against the men in Nixon's White House during the Senate hearings on Watergate, Bob Haldeman phoned him and said, "John, once the toothpaste gets out of the tube, it's pretty hard to get it back in." Dean could realistically take several levels of meaning from that euphemistic language: advice, a request, or even a threat.

Cool *haragei* is a technique that accomplishes agreement without any direct, overt, or cogent verbalization or action. Multiple meta-strategies are attempted utilizing euphemistic probing and bluffing. The negotiators need savvy and intuition to make it work consistently. Both Americans and Japanese do it; only the Japanese label it. Confusion or misunderstanding may result, but on the other hand, a negotiator may get more than he actually expects or deserves via this technique.

Overt verbalization of a demand or even a request could result in a quick rejection, an embarrassing loss of face, and a corresponding decrease in the *wa* or harmony that Japanese feel should exist in discussion. An illustration from Matsumoto (1978) follows:

> 'Cool' *haragei* is not so involving. Let us put it into perspective.
>
> The following is a dialogue between a prospective money borrower representing the giant Mitsubishi Corporation and the branch manager of just another city bank.
>
> 'It looks like we need your umbrella.' (Mitsubishi actually needs financing.) 'When it isn't raining?' 'It's threatening.' 'You must be kidding. Yours is an enormous *shosha* (trading firm) and it wears a big financial coat. You don't need an umbrella.' The banker doesn't ask why or pose any tricky questions directly; but he listens, without showing his '*hara*,' ready to lend on his own terms.
>
> 'What would you say to a loan request from us for working capital? Our client manufacturers need it for capital spending.' The banker didn't

answer directly, but indirectly. His meta-message was: 'Please drop hints as to why Mitsubishi needs our money so badly.'

After analyzing the banker's state of mind, the Mitsubishi man goes on: 'We're dealing with all kinds of Japanese corporations. We might even ask you to let us make a payment to a shipbuilding corporation near your home office, using your facilities on a regular basis from now on.' He is not answering the 'question,' and is, in fact, meta-bluffing in the hope that the banker will get the message. Both are playing their cards close to their chests.

'I'm afraid our bank is not qualified to meet your future financial needs.' A polite refusal. The banker is playing a word game, hoping to get more honne (true reasons). The banker's true question is, 'Why don't you ask the Mitsubishi Bank, which is your mother bank, if you're so sure about your payment schedule?'

'I'm not changing the subject, but I understand you're interested in the foreign exchange business. We're a trading firm. So we can be of some help to you.' Another bit of haragei acting--showing an iron fist in a velvet glove. The banker never shows happiness or unhappiness, never agrees or disagrees, just wears the same old smile because it's the truth.

The fact of the matter is that the manager knows full well the financial standing (tatemae) of the corporation but he wants to feel the financial pulse (honne) of the corporation. On top of that, through this psychological give and take, the banker is able to study every word and action of the prospective borrower: his personality, his personal credit-worthiness, devotion to his work, capabilities and other emotional factors as well.

All this is beyond logic or reason. Whether or not something clicks, it is a haragei. This type of 'cool' haragei used in business communication is not a monopoly of Japan; it is played everywhere, though not to the same extent as in Japan.

> Haragei is a complex and sophisticated game, because the minute haragei is seen through as a game, it is no longer haragei. True haragei is more easily talked about than done.

The references to "umbrella" and "rain" are again euphemisms, as is "big financial coat." They were intended as an opening for the later bluffing and acting. In this excerpt, the banker does not find out the honne or true reasons for the loan request for Mitsubishi which has its own bank for internal loans. However, the banker does get a feeler regarding the foreign exchange business. Again, this is semantically doubly-intended since Mitsubishi is Japan's largest trading company and could help the bank considerably, or, on the other hand, could, by its huge influence, insure that the bank never would get foreign exchange business any time in the future.

This bluffing and acting in conversation that is not so crucial and is so classed as cool haragei occurs in American domestic business settings as well. In the movie, "The Apartment," Baxter, a junior executive, played by Jack Lemmon, loans his apartment to upper level executives so they can carry on extramarital affairs. He does this in order to incur their favor and rise on the corporate ladder. Mr. Sheldrake, the president of the company, played by Fred MacMurray, knows Baxter is loaning his apartment for illicit purposes. Sheldrake, carrying on his own illicit affair,

wants Baxter's apartment as well and gets it in a *haragei*stic way:

Sheldrake:	The last junior executive was caught for bookmaking. (Looks at Baxter) (Phone rings. Sheldrake talks to his wife.)
Sheldrake:	I'll be out late--to 'The Music Man' with the branch manager from Denver. Goodbye, dear. (Sheldrake hangs up.)
Sheldrake:	Have you seen 'The Music Man' on Broadway, Baxter?
Baxter:	No, sir.
Sheldrake:	Here's two tickets to 'The Music Man.' Enjoy it.
Baxter:	But, I don't understand, sir. Aren't you going out with the branch manager?
Sheldrake:	Baxter, you aren't reading me. (Silence with eye contact.) (Baxter silently drops the key to his apartment on Sheldrake's desk.)
Sheldrake:	Enjoy the show, Baxter.

We can see that Sheldrake accomplished his purpose without overtly mentioning his *honne* or true reason. Baxter cannot be sure that Sheldrake is having an affair and is relatively powerless to question his superior. This brings up an important point regarding the relative status and power of the *haragei* players. In American business society, the freedom to use euphemisms and expressions, such as, "you aren't reading me," is greater for the boss or recognized superior in certain situations. In most situations though, American society is very egalitarian so both players have equal freedom. In Japanese society, the superior has more freedom, particularly the older and more experienced executive or politician who has decision-making power that

is not clearly defined. When the criteria for decisions are ill-defined, the executive must rely on his intuitive gut feelings--or haragei.

Other American idioms besides "you aren't reading me," used in similar situations as the above, are: Do you get me?, Are you following me?, and Are you following my train of thought? These phrases extend the concept of "understand" to include the meta-message or the expression that is not overtly verbal. American and Western societies incorporate haragei features in their communication systems, although the silences may not be very lengthy (10-30 seconds) in comparison to the Japanese. The major difference is that the Japanese name the phenomena and recognize them as both potentially effective or potentially ruinous.

Sheldrake's mention to Baxter of the previous junior executive being caught for bookmaking was an offhand tangential threat telling Baxter that he knew his apartment was being used for illicit and immoral purposes. This offhand manner of hinting at some knowledge that could lead to a desire being granted is also a part of haragei as it is played in Japan.

In favorable negotiating sessions, the concession that will conclude the agreement is said in an offhand

seemingly unintentional manner. It is mentioned briefly just once and generally out of context, e.g., in discussion of a minor point or tangential matters.

For example, Prime Minister Nakasone and his various ministers have over and over defended their trade position, their tariffs, their market's openness, and their need to maintain active and fair international trade. But only once have they publicly mentioned their want, a want which would significantly rebalance U.S.-Japan imports and exports. They are eager and want to buy American softwood (pine and others) and Alaskan oil at the going price. This eagerness is not overt in verbalization or action, however; they ~~don't~~ make any direct demands since a demand would attract attention--a violation of haragei. Haragei is being tried, but we are not sensitive enough yet to realize there is a solution to an expanding problem.

We can see that the desire to buy softwood and oil is not directly and overtly verbalized. The Japanese are not wont to make an issue of a need of theirs. When one has a problem or is in need of a favor, and is unwilling or unable to confront a friend with the request directly, suggestions or hints can be dropped. The greater the favor (onegai in Japanese), the more allusive the suggestions. The onegai carries the weight of obligation towards the recipient of the favor so that if the issue of oil or wood

was pressed, the U.S. might agree, but then in a follow-up negotiation, insist that Japan contribute more to its self-defense or even monetarily contribute to America's defense of Japan and the Far East. Due to the onegai granted and the reciprocal debt incurred, Japan would lose negotiating ground in terms of the bargaining chips at its disposal. Even when the suggestions of the onegai or favor are allusive, the Japanese friend does not feel the need to press for a direct explanation, instead relying on his powers of intuition.

Granting a favor to a Japanese makes him an onjin, or a person who has incurred an on or favor. He must then try to make up the favor somehow. In a negotiation between two electronics firms, the Western negotiator came alone for a one-on-one session with a Japanese manager. The Japanese, unable to clarify a point, had to bring in two more Japanese managers, and asked permission to do so, making the session three-on-one. By granting permission, the Westerner had granted a favor or on and concessions were later granted to his position to make up the favor. (Den Tuinder, 1984, personal communication).

Having a common history, language, and culture reflected by a remarkably homogeneous society, the Japanese have developed the communication of strong desires into an art of implication and inferral in the fewest number of

words. This last is reflected in the Japanese proverb: "Say one, mean (communicate) ten."

The essence of "cool" haragei is to communicate much via meta-talk, ambiguous, vague, and tangential references, while saying very little. We will see this in the next section on "hot" haragei with silence as a specific and largely orchestrated strategy in advance used in crucial situations to avoid impasse or negotiation breakdown.

By orchestrated, advanced pre-planning is meant. This is partly evidenced by the body language and other paralinguistic features. When combined with the ma, pregnant silence, or symbolic euphemisms, they add to the communicative intent. For example, searching eye contact (seeks agreement or harmony), constant smiling (a facade--particularly without eye contact), the audible exhalation of breath through the nose (resignation), the forced exhalation of an extended sibilant as in saaa (generally disagreement), sucking in the breath through the teeth (consternation or worry), or even closing the eyes (consideration--not sleepiness) are the most noticeable features. Of these, the constant smile is probably the most disconcerting to American negotiators on their first visit. The Americans must realize that the smile often corresponds with his own familiar situations of pleasure, happiness,

and friendliness which call for a smile, but must also realize that the Japanese smile is called for in many other situations as a cover for confused, ambiguous, embarrassing, and even unhappy situations. The experienced negotiator needs to always be cognizant of the pulse or spirit of the negotiation within each specific stage or context in order to gauge the value of the smile in combination with the negotiation conversation.

In a psychological study (Barnlund, 1975:57-58), Japanese commented on, "What I am like in interpersonal relations" with statements, such as, "I try to be as polite as possible, I pretend to be cool and calm, even when I am not, I don't say all of what I think, I try to agree even when I don't, I escape difficult questions, and I always smile when I talk."

The orchestration of polite and smiling talk extends to silence as well. A chief executive of an electronics firm in Japan outlined his personal procedure for dealing with silence in a domestic Japanese negotiation. When an impasse develops, do not immediately come up with a concession or comment to get the bargaining going again, but instead go through a routine with cigarettes and lighter. Reach slowly for your cigarettes, never going directly to the correct pocket, but instead pat both front trouser pockets, the shirt pocket, and all five pockets in the

suit coat, patting the correct pocket last. Then take the pack slowly out and very meticulously and ceremoniously pop one cigarette up from the rest. Tap it several times on the table and then put it in the lips. Then proceed to pat all eight pockets again for the lighter. Don't light the cigarette immediately after finding the lighter. Flick the lighter so that it won't work properly several times. Do all of these motions slowly without any sign of nervousness. Finally, smoke the cigarette very slowly. If the other side doesn't break the silence, go through the same routine and light a second one. After one more cigarette, around thirty minutes will have gone by, and it is either time to give in and break the silence or break off for some time (VanZandt, 1984, personal communication).

This procedure, compared with the DuPont executive's method of doodling for five minutes to reduce the temptation to talk and then adjourning the meeting because of "deadlock," reveals how formally recognized and drawn out silence can potentially be in a Japanese negotiation. Judging from the American aversion to lengthy (more than 30 seconds) silences, the Japanese must see Americans as very impatient. If the negotiations are not going well, the perception of impatience may be construed as untrustworthiness by Japanese negotiators not familiar with American customs. For these Japanese negotiators, Fast's Body Language (1970) would be

a satisfactory and readable reference for most American non-verbal communication.

Since silence is often a favored way of indicating rejection in the West, the American negotiator may modify his point and make a concession to the benefit (and pleasant surprise) of the Japanese.

> Western negotiators may jump into that pool of silence, sometimes to their regret. Howard Van Zandt, who spent seventeen years as ITT's top manager in Japan, recalls how the head of a Japanese firm did nothing when a contract was presented for his signature. Van Zandt's ITT boss then hastily sweetened the deal by $250,000. Says Van Zandt: 'If he had waited a few more minutes, he would have saved the company a quarter of a million dollars' (Greenwald, 1983:42).

This is an example of hot haragei since the Americans thought the deal was about to fall through. In fact, the Japanese silence was probably intended to be directed at the Japanese behind him, those lower-level managers who had negotiated the deal and settled for something less than what he believed was their optimum position.

If the American negotiator is not amenable to any negotiable changes, which he thinks the silence is calling for, he may become angry or impatient or both. This reaction may also surprise and/or confuse the Japanese.

Some negotiators contend that haragei should never be used with non-Japanese, but they are wrong. Culturally

determined paralinguistic features of communication, such as the smile, the inhaled sibilant saaa, and the forced exhalation of breath cannot be completely controlled in cross-cultural contexts. The Japanese executive cannot turn from domestic bargaining to international meetings and always remember that silence or ambiguous euphemisms may be negatively interpreted by the other side. Similarly, the American executive cannot erase his repertoire of euphemistic and potentially misleading idioms from his lexicon of negotiation.

When Americans use their brand of haragei, or intuitive communication, they do not name it with a commonly known word as the Japanese do. John Foster Dulles, President Eisenhower's Secretary of State in the 1950's, probably came closest to naming "hot" haragei when he coined "brinkmanship" which also occurs in a "do or die" situation just prior to a possible stalemate or breakdown of communication.

We have already seen how one Japanese executive uses his cigarettes during a potential stalemate and how one American executive magnanimously reacted when confronted with a few minutes of silence. From here, we shall examine an unsuccessful use of this strategy by a Japanese politician and then several examples of its succesful use by Western negotiators.

This "brinkmanship," in a nonlethal form, was practiced by Prime Minister Sato in his talks with President Nixon over Japanese textile exports to the U.S. Before leaving Japan, he announced to the Japanese press that he would use haragei on Mr. Nixon. In the meetings, when confronted with a difficult point which he could not concede to, he said "yes" a lot, smiled, and said, "Zenshō shimasu" (I'll do my best), but otherwise kept silent. The President, interpreting the smile and the Japanese expression as agreement with the U.S. position, considered his point won. His insensitivity to his counterpart's communication strategy, as well as to the Japanese domestic political pressure on Mr. Sato, led him to ignore the Prime Minister's political sensitivity, which created a turn for the worse. Several months later, when Japanese exports continued to increase, he became angry and issued a unilateral order without any consultation with the Japanese to close U.S. markets to Japanese textiles. The Japanese textile industry was seriously weakened in the early 1970's by this and gradually lost its market position both in the U.S. and domestically to other Asian imports. Prime Minister Sato thus made a serious diplomatic mistake which hurt a segment of his industry and population through the use of this potentially confusing communication strategy.

In this example, one of self-proclaimed haragei use by a prime minister, Sato was depending on Nixon to

intuitively realize his domestic predicament without having to overtly spell it out and thus have to ask Nixon for a favor. Sato's euphemistic use of zenshō shimasu, "I'll do my best," required an allowance for time from Nixon, but, unfortunately for Sato and his textile industry, Nixon's American style time frame was relatively short, too short for Sato to "do his best."

Haragei requires a learned appreciation of the other's intent. When this appreciation is aborted by lengthy delays, negotiation cutoff and conflict occurs. Communication without complete verbalization is potentially risky in any culture but occurs always. Mind reading without a shared personal history is difficult, to say the least. However, Americans could well be forewarned: "Anyone who can neither read another person's mind nor let the other person read his mind is not worth a damn in Japan"[1] (Masatsugu, 1982:202).

When Americans use "hot" haragei, they tend to make their hint not one of a need or favor since the negotiations in these situations tend to be on the verge of breaking down, but rather, since they see negotiators as being adversaries rather than harmonious cooperators as the Japanese do, they tend to bluff and/or threaten although the threat is veiled. An example of "hot" haragei as practiced by an American negotiator follows:

> During an actual negotiation with a Japanese company routinely purchased from, one of the buyer's objectives was a lower price. When the buyer felt the Japanese team had reached their stalemate point, he said, 'I have four short questions. How much product did you expect to supply to us this year? How much product have we already purchased?' (The amounts were the same, but it was then the month of August.) 'How much additional product do you hope to sell to us yet this year? What will you do with the product you have probably already made without further orders from us?' (He strongly expected they had neither outlets to consume it nor any new, near-term markets.) They received the unspoken threat (which was no more than a bluff). The price was lowered to where the buyer wanted it and the four questions were never answered. The questions that did not even seek answers in the stalemate were examples of 'hot' haragei or 'brinkmanship' (McCreary and Blanchfield: in press, 16).

In another negotiation between two international manufacturing firms, the Western negotiator found that no progress was being made on any issue. He decided to bluff via a veiled threat in the following way. After another attempt to get the negotiations moving was met with reluctance and silence, he mentioned that they didn't seem to be getting anywhere and suggested that all of them, including himself, call their respective bosses and tell them that the negotiators were all ready to go home without any agreement. Then to back up his statement, he stood up as if to go out and call his boss immediately. The Japanese reaction was to ask him to stay and try to work out a solution. After that, he found that their reluctance to speak was replaced with a more forthright approach that

gave him the progress he had been looking for in the bargaining (Den Tuinder, 1984, personal communication).

His statement and action was not meant as an out-and-out threat--he merely wanted to make them think he wanted to get his boss's input on how to get around the impasse--he had no intention of actually calling his boss. This bluff was thus similar to the use of rhetorical questions in the previous example. If any of the questions could have been answered or if, in the above, the Japanese had allowed the negotiator to walk out, the strategies would have failed.

Another example of an American using the Japanese perception of truth versus deception in negotiations comes from Richard Copaken, an attorney who investigated the Japanese machine tool industry for Houdaille Industries.

> 'It occurred to me that in the Houdaille context, the Japanese government might well jump to the wrong conclusion--that I was some kind of cat's paw for the U.S. government. If they did, I might be able to parley that. And that is exactly what happened... After a day of ... hundreds of questions we had prepared in advance, we were notified that this was all the time they could afford to spend for one private attorney representing one private company. Of course, they told us, "If it were the government of the U.S. that were asking for this information, it would be a very different situation." ... Essentially what they were doing was trying to flush out into the open what they were convinced was a fact--that this was a trial balloon by the U.S. government, and not just a legitimate private party pursuing a private case. With considerable malice aforethought, I added to

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> their discomfort by truthfully insisting to them that I was just one lawyer representing one small company. This, of course, convinced them that the opposite was the truth. It was a wonderful situation, filled with irony, where the only way to persuade them that I was actually a secret agent of the U.S. government was to flat out deny it,' he said.
>
> Copaken was playing the Japanese game of deception simply by telling them the truth. Using this warped Japanese perception of his real status, Copaken was then able to convince the MITI bureaucrats to continue holding their meetings with him (Wolf, 1983:131).

Unknowingly, Copaken was playing by another haragei rule (from Matsumoto, 1978), "don't tell the truth." By seeing in his denial a haragei ploy to cover his connections as a government agent acting on behalf of Houdaille, the MITI (Ministry of International Trade and Industry) officials missed a chance to avoid further meetings and potential revelations.

One complication that exists with learning a little about another culture is that misperceptions can easily occur. Once an American businessman is attuned to or sensitive to the cultural differences, he may perceive certain Japanese strategies wrongly as uniquely Japanese rather than a shared value that really exists. These perceived values are more important than any real value that may exist. For example, Americans can occasionally make communicative demands that require a little mind reading--

more so with spouses, but also in business too. One of the communicating partners must intuitively uncover the other's true intent. This must occur daily in marriage and management all over the world! See Nierenberg and Calero (1973).

Tacit understanding or the conveyance of information from mind to mind called ishin denshin is a central process in haragei. The homogeneity caused by almost total isolation makes this tacit understanding workable and useful for the Japanese. The advantage in relying on tacit communication lies in the strict vertical relationships. For example, in the feudal samurai society--a vassal was largely forbidden to speak up to a samurai--both inferiors and superiors made their intentions known through haragei. Conformity, homogeneity, and lack of contrasting thought processes allowed haragei to work. In today's Japanese society, continued homogeneity--less than one percent of the population is non-Japanese--and conformity of thought and action throughout the populace based on similar vertical structures continue to make haragei a workable process.

If the negotiator for an upstart company is forbidden by social constraints from directly expressing his company's view of a hidebound blueblood company, he must use haragei to some extent. Likewise, the negotiator for the blueblood company, in a superior position, may not wish to talk down or may not be able to dictate to the upstart,

so he, in turn, also uses haragei. Since they both understand their relative strength both on the interactional and transactional levels, the linguistic outcome is partly governed by haragei, rather than verbal communication alone.

Haragei, a rubric of communicative strategies that may serve both Japanese and Americans in certain negotiation contexts, requires savvy, intuition, and guts. The idiomatic use of "guts," "gut feelings," "he got through on guts alone," and other American sayings indicates that Americans too have some notion of "guts acting", as the Japanese put it. Ambiguity and deception are not hallmarks of the American conversational style, but we do have many examples of their effective use. In conclusion, a claim can be made that haragei is used at the negotiating table by both sides, occasionally for profit and occasionally for loss. The eleven haragei rules from Matsumoto's (1978) series on haragei are given in the hope that each one will bring to the negotiators' minds thoughts of strategies, past and present, that have worked and that will work.

1. Be euphemistic, eschewing logic or reason.
2. Keep the message vague and ambiguous.
3. Be empathetic.
4. Don't publicly disagree.
5. Don't be legalistic.
6. Play it artistically and wholeheartedly.

7. Don't attract attention.
8. Don't come on strong.
9. Don't seek the truth.
10. Don't tell the truth.
11. Let silence talk and language be silent.

GERMAN MEETS AMERICAN-CULTURAL SHOCK IN THE BOARDROOM

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GERMAN MEETS AMERICAN - CULTURAL SHOCK IN THE BOARDROOM

by Jack Troyanovich

Territoriality is instinctive in most animals. It is a drive which compels the individual to stake out a certain area, to patrol its boundaries, and to frighten off intruders. Territoriality promotes natural selection by insuring proper spacing. Animals deprived of territorial privacy in the rearing of the young exhibit behavior which, among humans, is called child abuse, incest and rape. Even when the food supply is adequate, such behavior manifests itself.[1] Moreover, the stress caused by the overstimulation of inadequate spacing predisposes those affected to disease.

In nature, territoriality insures the strength of the line by condemning those animals who are unable to acquire their own space to an untimely demise.

In man territoriality is somewhat more subtle, but nevertheless undeniable. Probably the most irrefutable proof of human territoriality is provided by the political system which denies it as a human trait. The nation with the largest tracts of arable land in the world is unable to feed itself. In denying the right of the individual farmer to his own

land, the Soviet Union has created a situation in which 60% of its food is grown on the 3% of the land that is allocated to the collective farmer for private cultivation.[2]

Territoriality has both individual and collective manifestations. Each of us as an individual surrounds himself with an invisible bubble, which we allow to be penetrated only by those we love. We invade the bubbles of others only with the intention of love or to do bodily harm. Although the bubble of personal space varies in dimension from one culture to another, it is universal to human kind.

In addition to the personal territory, we also inhabit social territories. The social territory is shared with those whose collective efforts insure the survival of the group. The neighborhoods we live in respond as typical social territories when people of a different race or social class move into them. The reaction is even more territorial when a stranger moves into a rural village. Boundary maintenance is virulent in bureaucratic social entities such as police and sheriff departments and nowhere greater than between departments of English and those of Foreign Languages. Reaction to the interloper is predictable: suspicion, distrust, the cold shoulder,

even violence.

Neighborhood gangs in street wars and medical doctors, who deny the validity of treatment applied by doctors of osteopathy, are acting out instincts as old as life itself.

Territoriality in man differs only in degree from the territoriality of animals. Animals of the same species are usually content to maintain a territory which is sufficient to the needs of a constant number of individuals. It is remarkably permanent in its dimensions. Man, on the other hand, is an imperial animal. He constantly seeks to enlarge his territory at the expense of his neighbors. Automobile companies attempt to expand their markets and increase their product line. Universities attempt to increase their student numbers. Countries attempt to add to their present number of square miles.

At the company and university level, imperial urges may result in much frenetic activity, and even considerable noise. For the most part, however, they are not dangerous, except perhaps to our digestive systems in the form of ulcers and hemorrhoids. At the national level they can be more costly.

Any territorial expansion requires sacrifices of the individuals who constitute the organization.

A 1% increase in market share may cost autompbile company executives years of twelve-hour days. University expansion will demand the same of university executives. Professors will have to serve larger numbers of students. The expansion of national boundaries, however, exacts the ultimate sacrifice: life itself. In World War II, the last territorial adventure of major proportion, more than one hundred million human beings made the ultimate sacrifice. The magnitude of this act attests to the power of the territorial instinct in its social manifestation. It also indicates the relative weakness of the individual instinct for self preservation when in conflict with national territorial imperatives.

In the calm of thoughtful contemplation, it is virtually impossible to comprehend the willingness of so many individuals to sacrifice themselves to social territoriality. It becomes more comprehensible when we investigate more closely the nature of human social territoriality.

Language plays a major role.

Human social groupings at the national and even at the international level often occur along linguistic lines. English speaking peoples are still united by the British Empire in a spiritual sense. The intellectual and economic life of the United States,

for example, is characterized by a strong pro-Anglo-Saxon bias. A visit by Charles DeGaulle in 1960 gave tremendous impetus to the separatist movement in French Canada even though France had abandoned her Canadian colonists more than two centuries before. Spanish speaking Latin Americans continue to look to Spain as their cultural motherland, even though the populations of these countries are primarily of Indian origin.

Language bonds the individuals of a social territory as the sex act bonds the individuals of a family territory.

Perhaps nothing is more characteristic of social territoriality than language.

Language is communication.

Man's evolution from a long-armed, short-legged tree dweller, who ate the fruit of the garden of eden, to a long-legged, prairie-dwelling meat eater, whose high protein diet enabled his brain to outstrip the brains of all of his animal competitors, is attributable largely to two phenomena.

One, he became a killer. He freed himself from the necessity to spend most of his time chewing plant products with poor nutrient value by learning to stalk and kill the hoofed animals of the African savannah.

One good, high protein meal a week was sufficient to sustain him. This high protein, however, came in the form of hoofed animals who were bigger and faster than he was. Learning to smash their skulls with the thigh bone of a medium-sized antelope was not enough. He had to stalk this prey on its own territory, where its survival adaptations provided it maximum protection from predators. In the relatively flat, semi-arid savannah, smells of danger carried far. Its sense of smell was strong. Our short-legged, tree-dwelling ancestor had good eyes but was at a tremendous disadvantage on the prairie. His arms were strong from climbing in the trees but his legs and feet were no match for the streamlined, hoofed legs of the fleet antelope. He, therefore, had no choice but to employ his superior brain. He learned that his best devices were stealth, subterfuge and team effort. A high degree of coordination was necessary to approach the herd, gently and slowly drive it into a canyon, over a cliff or into a narrow ravine so that a number of individuals could be captured and slaughtered. The necessary coordination was achieved by hand signals, various sounds, and, at closer distance, even glances and eyebrow movements. The maneuvers were complicated. Success required precise coordination. The various signals, strategies, and maneuvers had to be learned and

taught to others.

Communication became a second important survival adaptation.

The hunt provided our ancestors with the necessity to develop a system of communication for survival. This system developed into what we know today as culture.

As human populations increased and spread over the globe, new environments brought embellishments, enhancements, improvements and modifications to the communication of the hunt. In one locale, buffalo robes were used to deceive the bovine prey, in others it was feathers, in still others the mimicry of mating calls. The education of the young centered on the hunt. Tribal rituals derived from it. Religious rites beseeched higher powers to grant it success and to assure the safety of the hunters.

The individual hunting band staked out its hunting territory. It drove off other bands who might threaten its food supply. Neighboring bands lived in implacable antagonism to one another. Wherever they encountered each other, the aggressive methods that they normally applied to their animal prey were turned upon their human cousins. This encounter required a different kind of communication: more complicated, and because the prey was more dangerous, more cruel. It called for a strong differentiation between the warring factions: different sounds

different hand signals, distinctive uniforms.

When man learned to till the soil and store food so that his sustinence could be better controlled, he could multiply in number still further. His territories became more stable. Each of these territories developed distinct characteristics and qualities: the use of different kinds of materials and implements, different clothing and shelter, different foods and drinks, different social arrangements, different religions, different languages and dialects. All of these differences either promoted or were perceived to promote the survival of the hunting band which had become a biological nation. All enhanced the viability and the integrity of the social territory.

Man, the imperial animal, constantly challenges the limits of his territory. He seeks to dominate every territorial vacuum. When there is no uninhabited land to exploit for his enrichment, he wrests land already inhabited from its present owners. The study of human history is largely a study of human territoriality.

It is against this background of hundreds of thousands of years of territorial evolution that we must approach bilingualism, international trade and diplomacy. We, who engage in such endeavors, work in the no-man's land between two biological adversaries

whose mutual antagonism is rooted in survival adaptations as old as life itself. We carefully pick our way through barren and unknown tracts, seeded with mines. Seldom is there a respite in the shelling and the small arms fire. We are caught in the crossfire. Survival requires finely tuned instincts, quickness, intelligence and adaptability. These dangers we accept as our destiny. Less tolerable in the no-man's land of international endeavor is the spiritual starvation of complete and total loneliness.

Bilingualism, international trade and diplomacy began when nomadic hunters who had a surplus of skin, horn, or meat, discovered that they could trade it with other bands for their surplusses. In this fashion both trading partners were able to raise their standard of living or even perhaps to assure their survival. This simple exchange developed into the sophisticated international trade we know today. As the demand for an ever higher standard of living grows, it brings with it the need for goods and services supplied from ever greater distances. People become involved in this type of activity of necessity. Modern, large businesses cannot survive without international involvement. The individuals who work in these organizations must participate. Most do so reluctantly for all of the territorial reasons described earlier in

this paper. The rewards can be great but the dangers are legion. We take the risks because we must. The larger social entities to which we owe our survival in an increasingly complicated world demand it of us. Either we move with the momentum of history or we are cast aside to languish in poverty or to perish at an untimely age.

We in the United States are relative newcomers to international trade on a large scale. We have been involved in it for little more than a generation. Germany, however, is a country whose survival literally depends on it. A country with few natural resources, it imports raw materials and exports finished products. What it has to sell the world is its work. As a highly civilized country, it must provide work of a nature that is rare elsewhere, thus it must be most sophisticated and precise.

Like most German industry, the German automobile industry must export to survive. When the export of finished products is not feasible because of currency exchange rates or protectionist legislation in the host countries, it becomes necessary to assemble vehicles outside of Germany. This earns money from the finished product and, at the same time, provides a market for components and subassemblies.

Back in 1976 when then Chairman of the Board Toni Schmuecker persuaded his colleagues that VW's long range survival in the American market depended upon the creation of a manufacturing base in the United States, the American auto industry was in a resurgence from one of its regular cyclical lows. Volkswagen too had felt the impact of a world-wide recession. Schmuecker had had to place 25,000 workers on indefinite layoff. VW's fluid cash had been reduced to an alltime low of some two million marks. Then sales improved to pull it out of its economic decline.

The recently introduced Golf, known in the U.S. as the Rabbit, was proving a worthy successor to the vehicle that had built Volkswagen, the venerable Beetle. Sales curves were soaring. Profits were respectable. It was time to move.

In July of 1976, The Volkswagen Manufacturing Corporation of America was formed. It was constituted separately from the sales organization, Volkswagen of America, which had existed for more than eighteen years as an importer of Volkswagen, Audi and Porsche automobiles, manufactured in Europe.

Volkswagen Manufacturing represented at once a major financial risk and an experiment of grand dimension. No foreign manufacturer had ever attempted

to set up production on such a large scale in the United States. Moreover, Volkswagen was, for the first time, relinquishing the management of one of its subsidiaries to foreigners. Large Volkswagen organizations in Mexico, Brazil, Nigeria, and South Africa had been built and managed by German employees, hired and trained in Wolfsburg. The novel idea of American management had been promoted by Chairman Toni Schmuecker, who had been a top executive at Ford of Europe. At Ford he had become an admirer and imitator of American manufacturing and management methods. He was a firm believer, for example, in management by consensus.

Schmuecker had seen a successful meld of American and German operating methods in Cologne and he was of the opinion that the same success could be achieved by a German-owned company in the United States. He sold his idea over the violent objections of many upwardly mobile middle managers in Wolfsburg, who saw in the U.S. subsidiary a fertile ground for their ambitions. These individuals would later avenge their disappointment in a harsh and costly fashion.

No one could anticipate the dark days ahead in the summer of 1976 when the first American managers were hired. Jim McLernon, a brilliant, charismatic and

highly successful General Manufacturing Manager from General Motors, was appointed the first chief executive. He soon hired two tried and trusted G.M. colleagues to assist him in the key positions of Vice President of Manufacturing and Vice President of Purchasing. The latter, in turn, hired their staffs from among their former workmates at General Motors. Volkswagen Manufacturing became a cultural colony of General Motors.

In 1976 General Motors was still the largest corporation in the world. It had become so by virtue of a world war, that was won by the G.M. side, and by typically American operating methods. The General Motors world view is imperial, nationalistic, exuberant. General Motors methods are disciplined, conformist, aggressive. The successful G.M. employee is single-minded, hard-working and ambitious. Moreover, he thrives on risk.

The Volkswagen-General Motors team was young, averaging about thirty-five. It hailed mainly from the midwest. Its members were almost exclusively college graduates. Most of them had technical degrees, many from General Motors Institute.

The manufacturing plan called for an initial six month period during which an American manager in a key position was to be paired with a German manager with

the same professional specialty. The German would introduce his partner to Volkswagen methods and philosophy and a c t as the superior, to whom the American reported. During the next six months the German and the American would have equal responsibility and equal authority. During a successive six month period, the German would report to the American, after which the Germans would all go home, leaving the Americans in charge.

The plan seemed logical, rational and feasible.

The Germans were naive in their basic assumptions. Logic and reason are weak and ineffective when opposed by the formidable force of animal territoriality. A study of midwestern American culture and General Motors would have served the Germans much better than logic and reason. Even Schmuecker's observations at Ford in Cologne were not applicable in this context. As an ambitious young executive, he had learned American English and American methods to rise in an American firm. Now he was meeting the Americans on their territory and asking them to adapt to a mentality that had achieved success by thinking small.

More diametric opposites can hardly be imagined; on the one hand, the imperial GMers, aggressive, self-confident and uncomplicated; on the other hand, the Volkswageneers, beetle builders from the gray swamps

of Lower Saxony, raised in the shadow of the iron curtain, logical and reasonable, operating in the land of the conqueror, stammering his idiom, slightly nauseous from sweet corn and Kentucky whiskey.

Most significant were the differences in respective organizational behaviors.

Americans are descendants of various ethnic groups or religious sects that were persecuted in the mother country. Upon landing in America, they banded together, either to promote and propagate the beliefs for which they had suffered or for simple acceptance, protection and help. The American mentality is still exceedingly tribal or sectarian in outlook. American work teams are formed along tribal or sectarian lines. An Irishman, an Italian or a Pole, for example, who rises to a position of influence, will instinctively seek to surround himself with others who share the same infra-culture. He has greater trust in them. They will share his feeling of being besieged by the members of other nationalities, with whom he competes for space, for jobs, for money and for respect. They will have a common sense of destiny and thus will be loyal to him.

Since the American manager seeks comfort and protection from his team rather than technical competence, the individual American worker generally

does not have the high level of competence of the individual German worker. What he lacks in competence is compensated by the aid he receives from his teammates and the support and protection granted by his tribal manager. The German knows he will survive only through competence.

The American system tends to stifle a high degree of individual competence. The individual cannot stand out in the group because the group is all-important. The natural tendency of groups to require conformity prohibits any individual from rising above the level of group competence. If he rises above the competence level of the tribal chief, he will be ostracized, denied the support of the team. He will eventually have to leave.

Individual competence is also inhibited by the fact that, no matter how able, an individual will find it most difficult to be accepted into a group whose ethnic background he does not share. If he is accepted, he will almost surely not rise to a position of considerable influence unless he is a most remarkable individual. Amerioan law has attempted to inject an element of fairness and plurality into the American economic team. Even though members of legally recognized minorities must by law be hired into the tribally oriented work teams, they are never fully

accepted. They never share the deep, informal, often unspoken communication of the in-group. Perhaps America is still too young to expect the kind of integration that logic seems to dictate for a pluralistic society.

The Germans have not the slightest understanding of American tribalism because in Germany no ethnic minorities are tolerated. If you find yourself a refugee in Germany, you make every effort to become germanized or you remain on the periphery of society: isolated, despised and usually poor. Moreover, the educated German is encouraged to be individualistic. When he attends the Gymnasium, his passport to a good job, he goes to school for half-a-day, then goes home to study alone. The German school is expected to transfer information. It has no social adjustment mission as has the American school. Social adjustment for the German occurs in the class and the circle of one's parents. Thus, German organizational behavior tends to be rather stiff and formal, and, above all, highly competitive. Competition tends to be most fierce among members of the same tribe. The German prefers to be known as an intellectual, individual operator, an Einzelkaempfer. Fortunately, the German respects authority. It is the cement that holds

his organization together. Thus, communication between a manager and the individual subordinate is good. Communication between individual colleagues is exceedingly poor. Nowhere does this difference exhibit itself more crassly than in meetings. Committee work for Germans is mere information transfer. The individual committee member researches the information necessary and reports it to the committee. Decisions are based on the momentum that seems inherent in the information. Although the highest ranking member of the committee is deferred to, individual decision-making is avoided if at all possible. The German fears the humiliation of failure, thus he avoids major decisions that are risky. He seeks more and more information until the information itself seems to dictate a course of action. The decision is usually reached subtly and seldom bears the trademark of an individual. It is seldom reached in committee.

The American organization, on the other hand, is tightly knit. As a good team player, the American is expected to share the values and philosophies of the team. He is expected to repress his individualism, to protect and to promote his teammates. This extends even into the private realm, where the American socializes with his teammates, helps them with household projects, and, in teams with sectarian orientation,

worships together with them. Thus the American team is harmonious. It has a unified orientation and forward momentum. Committee meetings are employed to reach a consensus. They tend to be long, filled with opinion, concerned with tactics and politics. Very little of the technical detail that one finds in a German meeting is to be found here. The German, sitting in an American meeting, views most of it as a waste of time. He judges the American as unprepared and incompetent in the technical detail. Final decisions are made by the highest ranking member of the American committee. The latter seeks responsibility. He endeavors to put his brand on decisions. They should be distinctive of the team and, above all, of the team leader, who will be held fully accountable for their result. If they fail, the American will pick himself up, brush himself off and try again. A certain amount of failure is expected. The ability to recover from setback is widely admired among Americans.

Americans and Germans sitting on the same committee usually become exceedingly frustrated with one another, the German viewing the American as unprofessional, the American viewing the German as pedantic and fearful of risk.

The communications emanating from German and American managers illustrate the various approaches to responsibility. A German communication is signed by two individuals, thus spreading the responsibility. Often the name is not typed under the signature. Frequently, the signature is illegible. The American, on the other hand, signs his communications alone, with his name and full title typed beneath it. There is no escape from accountability. It is easier for the American to accept responsibility. He knows that his fortunes ultimately rise and fall with the fortunes of his team. Ever if his decisions fail, he knows he can count on the protection of his tribal chief. Should his chief fall, he knows he will have to follow him to another organization. At the very least he will have to weather the humuliation and degradation of a purge, perhaps being demoted. He may even be fired.

The German respect for knowledge and technical competence is shown in his use of academic titles. In the automobile industry, you aren't really somebody unless you are Ing. so-and-so, better yet, Diplom Ing. so-and-so. If you aspire to a position of significant influence, you must be Dr. Ing. so-and-so.

Americans who have academic titles seldom use them. The higher the degree, the more it is downplayed.

A middle manager, who uses his Ph.D. in any fashion, will draw snickers and condescending smiles.

Since Germans prize knowledge so highly, they have difficulty admitting that they do not know something. This causes a great deal of loss of time and money. Often bluff is employed to conceal ignorance. At best, decisions and activities are delayed.

The American, on the other hand, is much more practical. He is evaluated by what he accomplishes. Any method that achieves this end can be used. He will ask any question, make any request. Germans are normally impressed by this practical behavior.

Because of the high level of competition, the low level of communication between equals, the fear of humiliation and failure, because the individual knows that he must stand alone, the German working environment is tense and serious. There is little smiling and joking. Work is considered very serious business. The only emotion shown is anger. It is shown freely and openly, accompanied by much shouting and drama.

The American work environment, because of a higher level of trust and a greater feeling of security, is more relaxed and jovial. There is much joking and ribbing. Anger is repressed. The Germans view this behavior as childish and incompetent. The Americans are seen as not taking their work seriously, as being

frivolous and irresponsible.

The American seeks to project an image of equilibrium, which he views as well adjusted. He seeks to repress extreme expression of any kind, be it enthusiasm, anger, love, respect or trust. Even after working hours he operates at the same emotional mid-frequency.

The German, on the other hand, releases all of his pent up emotions when the work day is over. He freely exhibits joy, friendship, respect, especially after having enjoyed alcohol. For this reason, he seeks friends with whom he does not work. He carefully attempts to maintain the private sphere separate from the professional sphere.

The American socializes often and freely with his workmates. His upbringing has taught him to repress emotional extremes. He, therefore, need not fear the vulnerability that comes from overt expressions of emotion. Moreover, if he should exceed the normally accepted limits, the team is expected to protect him. The German, enjoying no such protection, must avoid the occasion of potential vulnerability.

The Germans who came to the United States to help organize Volkswagen Manufacturing Corp. of America were operating at a severe disadvantage.

They were on American territory. It is territory that determines cultural behaviors. Transplants must adjust to the new soil or they will not survive.

The intellectual German Einzelkaempfer, as he prefers to be known, is no match for the American team.

The German Volkswagen manager could not make himself understood to his American partner. Even if he could have communicated effectively, it would have had no effect on the monolingual American, whose indoctrination from the team, stated simply, was:

"We'll show these Krauts how to build cars."

Whereever there was any leeway for American initiative, it was seized with enthusiasm. The GMers were tireless, working twelve and sixteen hours a day, travelling from Pennsylvania to Wolfsburg one week, to Puebla, Mexico or Sao Paulo, Brazil the next. Their accomplishments were phenomenal. Within thirteen months from the time they were handed a plant shell with a dirt floor, they were producing vehicles for a hungry market. Within eighteen months they were building cars at the rate for which the plant was designed: 800 vehicles per day. Within two years they had found a way to exceed capacity and build 1,250 cars daily.

The Germans, with their careful, plodding ways, would never have been able to accomplish this almost superhuman task.

How was it possible for a team of young American car builders to accomplish a most difficult task in an amazingly short period?

They accomplished it with General Motors assumptions and General Motors methods.

Since they were unable to understand the policies, procedures and guidelines of the parent company because the latter were in the German language, they simply steamed ahead, employing the modus operandi that had proved successful at General Motors. Where this was difficult because conditions or machinery were different, they adapted the situation as best they could to the G.M. way.

The results proved very costly.

Information Systems developed software that was incompatible with the software in Wolfsburg. A large corporation is driven by computerized mechanical communications. Thousands of decisions are made daily on the basis of computer reports which have been generated during the night. These appear on one's desk, often before the working day begins. The effective operation of the large corporation is utterly dependent upon them. Since the Americans had designed software that was incompatible with the Wolfsburg programs, decisions were made on false premises. Although I was not

privy to the costly results of many of the false decisions,I became involved in the solution of one of them.

The workings of information systems tend to be exceedingly complicated. They require a high degree of synchronization between man, machine and the printed word. Most productive material in automotive assembly is ordered mechanically. That is to say, when a completed vehicle is accepted by Quality Control and driven from the assembly line, the components it contains are relieved from the plant inventory and reordered, based on a planning forecast. Many of our components are purchased in Germany. When our orders were placed in Wolfsburg, our reports were incomprehensible to our colleagues there who were charged with filling the orders. Not only were the reports in English, they were also based on different premises, so that the American order triggered the filling of orders that were not required. The American was ordering individual parts. The German was accustomed to supplying complete car sets. When the sea containers were opened at the Westmoreland plant, they contained car sets!

I have no idea how much money was wasted on transportation costs when many parts had to be returned to Wolfsburg.

American part orders and the computer invoices that confirmed the fact that they had been filled, are transmitted by a tie line on the ocean floor. Time on this tie line is rented by international companies

operating in Europe and the United States. Volkswagen of America time is rented in the middle of the night because this is when it is most available and cheapest. This has one very serious limitation. Business has to be finished before time runs out. The Americans assumed that all business was being transmitted by the tie line. When their time was up, they merely delayed the messages that hadn't been transmitted until the following night. German regulations, however, require that an invoice be issued for all material the moment it leaves the Wolfsburg plant. If the entire invoice could not be inputted while the tieline was available, it had to be finished manually and sent by air mail. The Volkswagen of America Material Control Department, when receiving the incomplete material invoice, assumed that the order could not be filled for some reason or other. Because all material shipped by sea requires as much as six weeks to reach the assembly line in Westmoreland from Wolfsburg, an air freight order was placed to insure that the material not invoiced and, therefore, assumed not to have been shipped, was at the assembly line when it was needed.

Before this problem was solved, unnecessary air freight costs had exceeded one million dollars.

Moreover, more than five hundred sea containers had been lost on paper.

Not only was this mistake costly in dollars, it also cost some managers a reputation that had taken years to build. It could have been avoided with simple communication: one meeting could have cleared up the system differences; one telephone call could have confirmed the fact that the ordered material had been sent so that it need not have been reordered.

Why was the meeting not held? Why was the telephone call not placed? Communication failed to occur because of animal territoriality, primarily in the form of language.

The Germans were forced to use English each time they dealt with the Americans. They were often incapable of expressing the complexities inherent in the operations to be undertaken. When they were capable, they feared exposing ignorance, something a German has been conditioned to deplore. Therefore, no message was sent.

The Americans, ignorant of both the German language and German operating methods, forged onward, confident of the support of their tribal chief. They simply chartered a 747. They would show the Krauts how to build cars!

I could continue with horror stories caused by distrust and miscommunication but will desist so as not to bore you and perhaps also to save my corporate hide.

Suffice it to say that mistakes, such as the one described, occurred throughout the corporation at incredible material and human cost.

A certain amount of waste can be borne by a large corporation in good times. In bad times, it provides the scalpel, with which corrective surgery is performed.

In mid 1981 Rabbit sales began to decline. By early 1982 Volkswagen of America had moved from a profitable posture to one of loss.

It was payback time!

Those German managers whose ambitions had been frustrated by Toni Schmuecker's appointment of American managers began to clamor for revenge. Most of our top managers were forced to resign. They were followed by scores of their old comrades, mostly from General Motors. Most of them presently work for the Chrysler Corporation. Although Lee Iacocca and his Ford team reap most of the credit for Chrysler's spectacular comeback, our former colleagues have played a significant, if perhaps not the decisive role in the Chrysler resurgence. This proves that

they are outstanding performers. Their talents are lost to Volkswagen today only because of their inability to overcome animal territoriality sufficiently to learn German and to adapt to German ways.

With the departure of the Volkswagen G.M. team, a purge began that would transform the corporation.

The transformation may be described in various ways, depending upon the perspective of the individual doing the describing. One thing, however, is certain beyond the shadow of a doubt: we won't be showing those Krauts how to build cars anymore.

The purge raged for the better part of a year. It began with the first lay-off in Volkswagen of America history. Among the first to be layed-off were tens of translators. Translators are always perceived as an operating burden. They are considered unproductive, draining the corporation of some $43.00 per hour per translator.

With the reduction of the translator corps, German documents had to be dealt with in the original, upper management had to attend meetings conducted in German. The pressure for germanization caused further resignations. Staffs were shuffled.

American methods, technical approaches and styling came under fire. The Pontiac pizzaz that we

had designed into the Rabbit interior came to be regarded around the corporation as a Stilbruch.

Parts, that I exported to the German plants, came under closer scrutiny. One relatively simple part was rejected for having twenty-one defects. It took a trip to Salzgitter and a three hour meeting with an old and respected colleague to reduce the number to a manageable four, which it was technically feasible to correct. Our new Chairman was quoted in headlines in the company newspaper as saying that the americanized Rabbit would put a "good German driver" into the ditch. He neglected to mention that it was designed for American driving conditions, not for the "good German driver" who has carte blanche to play Grand Prix on the Autobahn at 100 miles an hour.

With his remarks, he unleashed a wave of anti-americanism, the wounds of which will take years to heal.

Soon thereafter, he realized the impact of his remark and recanted. For some it was too late. They had already left. His words had been the coup-de-grace of the purge.

Realizing that the American market was too important to lose and perhaps because of an inherent fairness that he could no longer deny simply to please

the vengeance-seekers around him, he made peace with those of the American team who were left.

The time for renaissance had dawned. It was time to put aside our provincial struggles and to grow together as a family that produces the durable, quality vehicles for which Volkswagen has been known in the United States for more than twenty-five years.

Working together will be easier now. Those who had found it difficult to work for a foreign company are gone. Those who remain view themselves realistically as employees of a relatively small, wholly owned subsidiary of a German firm. Many of those bilinguals, who had been relegated to dead-end jobs in the G.M. period, have taken the posts of those who have left. More meetings are in German. Translations are rare. Even technical documents are no longer translated. German classes are held daily at most locations. The future at Volkswagen of America belongs to the bilingual.

Although all of us, who experienced it, at times remember nostalgically those early days of enthusiasm, bravado and boundless hope, we are at once relieved that reality has reasserted itself. Reality can be gray and drab but it is the stuff that lasts. You can feel

it when you walk through the offices and especially in the plant. All is so much more quiet and subdued. It is also more sensitive, considerate and accomodating. It is more reliable, more stable. It is the world of the beetle: success from thinking small.

The last chapter in Volkswagen's valiant effort to challenge the limitations of animal territoriality has yet to be written. The possibility of failure is great. Even if this particular effort should fail, the Germans must be lauded for their courageous pioneering effort. They have formed the vanguard of evolution. The inexorable demand for new economies, new products, higher standards, will force others into the breach. Those best prepared for the uncertainties and dangers of international endeavor will fare the best in the struggle for survival.

Appropriate preparation must include rigorous language training. More importantly, however, it must include exercises in cultural assimilation, practiced in deadly earnest over extended periods. Remember, we are attempting to overcome animal instincts as old as life itself. It must also include realistic assessments of what can be expected. I sincerely hope that this paper has given an accurate

description of the nature of life in the international arena.

It is a life full of loneliness, replete with rejection and suspicion. It is the life of the Gypsy, at home everywhere but without a true home. It is a life of physical discomfort and privation. It is a life of change, of excitement, of adventure. It is a life of constant challenge and growth, a life with neither intellectual, nor artistic, nor economic, nor sensual limitations.

It is the life for those few who were destined by special gifts and experience to live at the cutting edge of evolution.

It is the only life for me, the only life for you.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Edward T. Hall, The Hidden Dimension. Doubleday, Garden City, N.Y., 1966, pp. 7 - 39.

[2]Robert Ardrey, The Territorial Imperative. Dell, N.Y., N.Y., 1966, pp. 115, 116.

THE LANGUAGE TEACHER AS CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINER: EVALUATION

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Evaluation of a course or program can serve a variety of consumers.[1] As George Renwick points out in his Evaluation Handbook for Cross-Cultural Training and Multicultural Education, an evaluation can be done primarily for the benefit of student and program participants, for teachers and trainers, for administrators and managers, for colleagues, or for outsiders such as funding sources and the like.[2] "A rather simple, carefully designed evaluation of a ...course or program can yield surprising insights and suggest new, very promising directions."[3] In short, an evaluation can be an important learning tool.

At a one and a half-day seminar presented periodically at Oakland University on developing cross-cultural communication effectiveness for American business executives going to Japan, an evaluation instrument has been administered to each client at the conclusion of each program. The purpose of this paper is to show -- in the fifteen minutes available to me -- the immense usefulness of the feedback elicited by such an evaluation device and its palpable impact on the program, itself the product of one and a half years of joint effort by a five-person team. The feedback gained by the evaluation instrument is of course applicable to similar kinds of programs that may be in development elsewhere. Two previous papers on the subject of cross-cultural seminars

growing out of our experiences at Oakland University have already been presented at the 1983 EMU Conference for Foreign Languages for Business and the Professions.[4] This paper completes the circle, as it were, by dealing with 38 client responses to four seminars.

First, a brief overview of the cross-cultural seminar with its objective to provide American executives with both the skills and the confidence necessary for effective American-Japanese business relationships. Broad-based and highlighting the cultural aspects of the Japanese corporate environment, the seminar also focuses on specifics such as Japanese decision-making processes, business practices, management structure and leadership roles, more effective negotiation through improved listening techniques, protocol with respect to business meetings, business entertaining and gift-giving and client/vendor relationships. The seminar seeks to develop awareness of cultural differences between American and Japanese values and behaviors to heighten sensitivity to ambiguous situations and unexpected behaviors in the host culture. Instructional techniques include training films, role play, short lectures, case studies, group dynamics, and a workbook with supplementary readings for each seminar participant.

The three-page evaluation instrument is administered at the end of each seminar to elicit feedback on the client's reactions to the program. The evaluation contains three parts: 1) a series of statements reflecting the goals of the program, requiring each participant to indicate the degree to which he or she feels these goals have been achieved, on a scale from 0 to 5, where 0 means 'not at all' and 5 'completely.' A follow-up question seeks the rank ordering of workshop components. In terms of perceived client usefulness, they have turned out to be concepts, instructional methods and techniques, training films, materials and references, and personal contacts, in that order. 2) The second part of the instrument seeks responses to each of the modules presented in the seminar, again on a scale from 0 to 5, with 5 being the highest score. 3) The last part is an open-ended question inviting participants to offer whatever additional responses they might wish to share with the training team. At first, this question was worded to deliberately seek out critical observations that would help the team improve the quality of the program: "The training team wants to insure that this program be of the highest quality. We will therefore appreciate any other comments that will assist us toward this goal. Please be frank and direct." After the second seminar, we neutralized the wording to obtain a

more balanced critique of both the merits and perceived weaknesses of the program. One benefit of this change has been the greater range of quotable material to promote the program (with the writer's permission, of course).

The appraisals -- in most instances signed -- take about 15 minutes to complete. They have been instrumental in effecting a number of adjustments in the program.

My main purpose in this paper is not to present statistical information on the reactions to, and the grading of, the program. Rather, I would like to sort out those comments that have been useful in its ongoing development and to comment on consequent modifications of the program. The discussion will be subsumed under four headings: 1) the structure of the workshop, 2) effectiveness of presentation, 3) scope and substance, and 4) behavioral modifications and attitudinal changes. The headings may be arbitrary; they are by no means mutually exclusive. Other classifications might have been equally appropriate.

1) The structure of the workshop

Recurring responses in this category motivated us to make three major alterations: (1) the redistribution of certain modules, (2) the amalgamation

of modules, and (3) the restructuring of the time frame of the entire workshop. For the first two seminars four special films were used, three produced by JETRO (Japan External Trade Organization) and one by Vision Associates, New York, adding up to a total of almost 2 out of 10 hours' instruction. The problem, however, was not primarily one of time. Clients felt that at least one of the films "Japan Is Your Market" was inappropriate since in their judgment it was too one-sided in presenting Japan as an easy market to crack. Nor did it seem central to the theme of cross-cultural communication. Possibly as a result of the disproportionate number of Japanese films, clients felt that our entire presentation was "a little slanted in a pro-Japanese direction."

A second recurrent criticism had to do with a perceived lack of relevance to the rest of the seminar of a module on improving interactive listening skills. We also knew that the module had a tenous relationship to the main thrust of the proceedings. Finally, a team member helped solve the problem by suggesting amalgamation of two modules: the one on listening techniques with one on the uses of an interpreter. The result was a role play of an American executive

attempting to buy a young Japanese designer's line for showings in the U.S. market. Three different versions of their initial meeting are dramatized: the first one with an interpreter but without benefit of listening training: the second version with the addition of two alter egos, revealing stereotypical thoughts of each character along with their spoken utterances; and a third version demonstrating sharpened listening techniques and greater sensitivity to nuances of meaning. The success of this role play has been tempered only by our regret that we didn't think of it long before the criticism that pointed up the isolation of the unit on interactive listening skills.

The third recurrent response to the structure of the workshop had to do with the tremendous press of time that inevitably made any in-depth discussion of issues difficult and sometimes put the remaining seminar schedule in jeopardy. The major problem was without doubt the time distribution of the seminar from 6:30 - 10:00 p.m. the first day and from 8:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m. the second day. The program began with a half-hour wine reception followed by dinner in the elegant 100-Tudor mansion, "Meadow Brook Hall," an ideal campus location for a seminar on intercultural

communication. The first-day schedule left us with two hours' instruction that simply proved to be insufficient. Nor did we take into account the fatigue of our participants who had worked an eight-hour day and who were expected to absorb important concepts after a wine reception and a steak dinner. Feedback from clients prompted us to drop both the reception and the dinner and to advance the first-day session to 2:00 p.m. with adjournment between 5 and 5:30 p.m. Our initial concern that such an arrangement would take executives away from their desks for more than a day proved to be groundless. Since making the change, criticism about the tight schedule has diminished, though there are still occasional suggestions that the workshop be expanded to two full days.

2) Effectiveness of presentation

In this category four concerns emerged: (1) interpersonal involvement of the participants, (2) variation of the training format, (3) the need for summaries and wrap-ups at strategic points, and (4) the question what constitutes an ideal number of presenters for an enterprise of this length.

The first concern, interpersonal involvement of

participants, clearly related to the pressure to cover a vast amount of material in a given period and the relative sparsity of discussion time. Too many topics were on the agenda. Interplay among presenters and participants, however, is essential as are interchanges among the participants themselves, particularly those with experience in the host culture. Time for sharing experiences must be provided. Restructuring the seminar has alleviated this problem, though by no means solved it altogether.

Variation of the training format has been another concern. The temptation of academics turned trainers -- and others as well, I have discovered -- to speak right on instead of yielding the floor is an overwhelming one we must guard against. We therefore try to change pace frequently through the use of various instructional techniques such as the use of case histories, visuals, short inventories or surveys.

The need for frequent summaries or wrap-ups at significant junctures in the proceedings may seem entirely obvious. But we had paid less attention to "summation time" than we should have until critiques called this omission to our attention. We now summarize at the end of each morning and

afternoon session and particularly at the end of the workshop. One client suggestion, however, we have rejected: a proposal to make each presenter's notes available in published form, since note-taking allegedly draws attention away from concepts.

The last item in this category concerns the question of what constitutes an ideal number of presenters in a one and a half day workshop. Though there have been few comments from participants, those who addressed the matter have ranged over the entire gamut: from the notion that "with a complete package one presenter would serve the function of getting the story told and point made and be more direct about it," to "make sure you maintain the number of speakers; the changeover and interplay are effective." As long as the presenters work as a team, their size is not a main issue, except perhaps that as their number increases, so does compensation. On the other hand, if a member of the team is indisposed, others can take over and indeed have done so successfully.

3) Scope and Substance

Under this category one item may be of particular interest to foreign language teachers contemplating such a program: the question whether or not a language

learning module should be part of a short seminar on intercultural processes. At first we did not think so. On the basis of some client interest, however, and the presence of a native Japanese speaker on the team, we decided to develop a 45-minute lesson on "survival Japanese." The idea seemed a good one, but responses to the module were thoroughly disappointing. Even a modest attempt in language learning demands too much concentrated and sustained attention in the context of a multi-topic seminar. We reluctantly dropped the unit, though we have left the transcript of the lesson in the participant's workbook. There has, however, been an attractive counter-proposal: that language instruction focus solely on the pronunciation of proper names to avoid embarrassment over poor pronunciation of company and personal names. Such an approach might enjoy a greater degree of success than a concentrated package of survival dialogues. We have not tried the new approach yet.

4) Behavioral modification and attitudinal changes

In the last category we have had the most positive feedback. Participants say that the seminar has given them a better understanding of their own as well as the target culture, that it has made them more sensitive to the role of non-verbal communication, that

it has given them a stronger grasp of areas of potential misunderstandings, and that it has increased their sense of confidence in dealing with ambiguous situations. Criticisms have included the need to present "a more balanced view of Japanese strengths and weaknesses," "the desirability of including a topic on understanding buy/sell/acquisition visits which could have different implications" for the traveler, a need for understanding terms that have cultural meanings different from those in English, such as "family" or "business card," and the usefulness of a "short coverage of the current political, economic and religious environment which would help to give a rounded introduction to Japan and its people."

The wide range of client responses demonstrates what valuable contributions participants can make in the development of a program through an evaluation instrument. Our evaluations have enabled us to become aware of client concerns and to make appropriate and ongoing alterations and adjustments in the program: to add, delete, merge, or adapt -- in short, to know what works and what doesn't.

Acknowledgment and References

[1] I wish to express appreciation to my colleague, Professor Richard Stamps, who prepares statistical information on and summaries of, evaluations after each cross-cultural seminar.

[2] George Renwick, Evaluation Handbook for Cross-Cultural Training and Multicultural Education (Intercultural Network, Inc.), pp. 3 - 5.

[3] Renwick, p. 1.

[4] Lucinda Hart-González, "The Language Teacher as Cross-Cultural Trainer: Topics" and William Schwab, "The Language Teacher as Cross-Cultural Trainer: Approaches"

CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING FOR BUSINESS: A CONSULTANT'S PRIMER

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"Our ideas arise in the gaps between our beliefs," wrote the Spanish philosopher Jose Ortega y Gasset. These words can have special relevance to foreign language and ESL educators in the United States today. For certainly such educators have been reeling amidst capacious gaps for many years. For one, their basic operational premise as professionals has been that all people are basically alike (as human beings) yet basically different (as products of specific cultures). And, while believing that the study of a second language enriches one's understanding of a culturally diverse world, they have simultaneously assumed that the inhabitants of this particular (and ethnically diverse!) geographic portion of that same world see foreign language study as an expendable frill. In their worst moments of near acceptance of this parsimonious attitude, linguists and language educators behold a misshapen globe whose every corner is afflicted with misunderstanding and discord, and they despair of ever making a difference -- while at the same time perceiving their rightful sphere as the realm of international cooperation. Perhaps from these desolate philosophical ponderings of similarity and difference, of discord and harmony, of despair and hope, can arise new practical ideas for intercultural coexistence. Certainly one such idea is for academics to approach another culture: the business world.

Moran and Harris have observed that "perhaps where missionaries, politicians, and the military have failed in promoting peace and prosperity by cooperation among nations, the 21st century cosmopolitan managers and technicians may succeed."[1] The key word here is "cosmopolitan," and the cross-cultural consultant's goal is to fascilitate the acquisition of the global knowledge, the broadminded attitude, the flexible communication skills, and adaptable behavior usually associated with the truly cosmopolitan person.

How should a consultant proceed?

Some educators approach the foreign shores of the corporate world like marauding Vikings eager to plunder -- intent on pulling in substantial consulting fees, they brandish the sword of classroom authority and banish their audiences right and left, for business professionals abhor pedantry. Others appear on the horizon like Christopher Columbus -- proceeding from basically sound premises about the need for cross-cultural training, they nevertheless overlook barriers to the attainment of their goal and, not noticing that they have disembarked in a land different from what they expected, begin eagerly to offer trinkets of programs not quite suitable to the native's needs. A more appropriate course would be that of Marco Polo. Although consultants from academia arrive in the business world as innocents abroad, the

potential exists for them to become valued advisors to the Emperor and his court, if only they master the rudiments of the inhabitants' language and customs. The following suggestions for structuring and presenting a pre-departure cross-cultural orientation workshop may help the beginning consultant to avoid major cultural gaffes.

Arriving in the corporate sector is indeed akin to entering a new land. "Each multinational company has a culture of its own, in the full sense of that word," says Orville Freeman after 27 years of experience.[2] Because of this uniqueness, cross-cultural training in a corporate environment is "a trilateral process" involving home country, host country, and corporate cultures. For the university-based educator, the training procedure itself involves coming to grips with a slightly different triad: university culture, business culture, and the specific company's culture.

BEFORE TRAINING

A rather typical chart (adapted from Brislin & Pedersen and Casse[3]) mapping the procedure for putting together a workshop seems familiar enough, but analysis of the charted procedure reveals that dangers lie hidden (Figure 1). Before training, for example, of course instructors assess needs.

The relationship to corporate clients, however, differs from the familiar student/teacher roles. How often does a university professor begin a semester by asking students what they need to learn? As a corporate trainer, a workshop leader is neither mentor nor sage but facilitator. Instead of marching in with syllabus in hand, the consultant must first listen as other experienced professionals, the clients, outline the basics of what they want -- and do not want -- in training programs that must be both practical (tailored to specific circumstances) and sophisticated (substantive in content and varied in presentation).

The first step in effective needs assessment, then, is to become acquainted with the company's circumstances by reading some of its promotional literature (and its annual report), touring the facilities, talking to acquaintances who work there or to others who have consulted there. The successful consultant needs to learn the language of the workplace -- as one would a foreign language — by listening for key phrases, jargon, and acronyms in order to establish rapport and foster credibility.

The next step, gathering data on assumptions, is related to the task of setting up goals and can be crucial to selling the training package. Consultants must be prepared to explain

the rationale behind the content and methods of a workshop. For example, while empirical evidence suggests that self-awareness contributes to the understanding of another culture's values, to argue convincingly in favor of values clarification exercises in cross-cultural training, these assumptions need to be backed by research data, or at least supported by authoritative conjecture (e.g., E. T. Hall's proposal that we can only go beyond our own culture by "first exposing its major hidden axioms, and unstated assumptions concerning what life is all about -- how it is lived, viewed and analyzed, talked about, described and changed"[4]).

Next, based on the established needs and assumptions, goals are clearly defined, preferably in behavioral terms, in anticipation of the question, "What will the trainees be able to do upon completion of cross-cultural training?" While businesses appreciate outcomes that are measurable in quantitative terms, Pierre Casse warns trainers not to make guarantees about behaviors that are outside of their control but rather to point out trends and use statistics (if available) in order to substantiate probabilities, always stressing that the human and situational variables are unique and therefore rather unpredictable despite any successes of similar programs in other circumstances.[5]

Besides this possible pressure for guaranteed results, several other attitudes should be anticipated, most noteably those stemming from the participants' motivation, their education, and their positions. In the audience, are supervisors attending along with their people? (And will participants feel inhibited as a result?) Is the training part of the screening for the selection of candidates for overseas assignment? Is it considered a perk? a waste of time? remedial? How have other such training programs (if any) been received within the company? What preconceptions and stereotypes of the host culture do potential participants hold? Next, educators must consider their own attitudes. The image of business persons as "sharks" remains a staple of academic iconography, and defensiveness can arise in dealing with people who have fewer academic degrees yet earn twice the consultant's university salary. Also unproductive are attitudes that reinforce the businessperson's stereotypes of academics as impractical "ivory tower theoreticians" or as "closet socialists"[6] who believe that business activity is basically immoral and that multinational corporations take unfair advantage of developing nations. Stereotypes in this area need to be confronted as boldly and delicately as are stereotypes of any cultural group.

After accounting for attitudes in the audience and in

oneself, the variables of location and time remain. Given the improbability of Brislin and Pedersen's ideal scenario of a weekend retreat at least twenty miles from the workplace,[7] arrangements must be made to divert all but emergency interruptions during an in-house workshop. As for time, most cross-cultural orientations are short, four- to six-hour one-day sessions. Other possible time frames, depending on the company's commitment to cross-cultural training and on the consultant's experience and salesmanship, include two- or three- day workshops, two-stage sessions at one- or two-week intervals, or weekly half-day sessions over four to six weeks. Most companies find the one-week retreat for cross-cultural orientation difficult to justify on a cost/benefit basis.

In the final step in training design -- the selection and sequencing of appropriate training methods -- academic and corporate cultures clash once again. The cross-cultural trainer must explore teaching options beyond the still widely used lecture style, because expounding has not proven the most effective method of transmitting cross-cultural skills, and also because corporate audiences are accustomed to more varied professional presentations. Experienced corporate training executives recommend "the use of overhead projectors, flip charts, videotaping, and computerized simulations ... [because variety] helps stimulate students who may be distracted or

tired after a long day at work."[8] Without investing in expensive video productions or computer simulations, the beginning consultant can use slides, case studies, games and simulations, role plays, and questionnaires, sequencing the presentations to vary the pace and allow time for reflective synthesis of ideas as well as active practice of skills, in keeping with intercultural training's focus on (1) knowledge, (2) attitude, (3) skills, and (4) behavior.

DURING TRAINING

To impart knowledge, the consultant can make short readings (covering basic facts of geography, history, economics, politics) available to workshop participants before the training session. This basic knowledge topples the first barrier to goodwill in intercultural communication: ignorance. For example, how many Brazilians have had their patience tried by a multitude of well-meaning requests to speak Spanish? How many Chinese tire of explaining the difference between their language and Japanese? How often must New Zealanders in the U.S. shake their heads over compliments of how well they speak English? How many Costa Ricans carry maps to show that their country is not in South America? Despite its limitations, the lecture style is a good choice for transmitting this kind of basic information, especially when some of the tedium of notetaking is relieved by visuals and by providing the listeners with partially

completed charts for notetaking. These charts help to make the lecture a framework for guided discovery by encouraging trainees to think inductively and to assess and re-assess their knowledge as the lecture proceeds. To examine the culture shock phenomenon using this active-inductive process, for example, trainees receive a blank grid with hatchmarks on the horizontal axis designating the months of their anticipated sojourn and are asked to plot the cycle of emotional ups and downs as they anticipate it. Small group discussion follows, in which participants compare their projections and explain the rationale for their perceptions. Then the trainer shows the same grid with the culture shock cycle plotted. More discussion follows as participants compare their theoretical versions with the verified cycle (as per Oberg, Brown[9]) and examine their underlying assumptions about adjusting to a foreign culture and the need to learn coping strategies.

This same procedure can be applied to a lecture-style presentation of a conceptual tool for understanding the basic elements of culture -- the Kluckhohn Model (Figure 2). After a mini-lecture explanation of the model, trainees are asked to mark the squares that they believe correspond to the typical middle-class American value systems. Discussion ensues until

a concensus interpretation is reached, an interpretation which might then be compared with Robert Kohls' assessment that the predominant American values fall in the far right-hand column of the chart.[10] Comparison with U.S. minority cultures might be appropriate at this point, especially if trainees care to speak from their own experience. Then, working individually or in small groups, the participants can use the Kluckhohn model to analyze the values of the target culture, marking the values that they believe to be generally indicative of the foreign culture they are preparing to enter. The trainer can follow this initial assessment with brief general information lectures (highlighted with slides) about history, religion, geography, etc., emphasizing how these factors affect the culture's underlying values. At appropriate times, the lecturer should stop to allow participants to reassess their original hypotheses about the target culture. At the lecture's conclusion, the discussion continues until the trainees' assumptions mesh with the conclusions of authorities (or until there is agreement to disagree, pending more information and observation on the part of the trainees). Whatever the outcome, several goals of cross-cultural training have been addressed: (1) awareness of one's own cultural values, (2) awareness of the target culture's values, and (3) examination of the gaps between the two cultures. In addition, participants have a conceptual framework to help

them make sense of situations they will encounter while living abroad. This individualized learning process has emphasized "guided cultural discovery rather than packaged cultural content."[11]

Even if certain participants resist this kind of analysis (either because they cling to their old stereotypes or because they are distrustful of the oversimplification inherent in any generalizations about culture), they will nonetheless have been presented with an observational methodology — from Hypothesis (i.e., generalization) through Observation to Assessment and formulation of new hypothesis — which can be a useful tool in the "unfreezing - moving - refreezing" movement that occurs as people attempt to make sense of a strange culture. Instead of passively listening to a lecture, then, the trainees begin learning how to learn, a skill essential to effective functioning in a foreign culture. Finally, this "active-inductive lecture method" increases the likelihood of the occurrence of the "aha" phenomenon — that "eureka" click of apprehension that turns data into facts, knowledge into understanding.

Going beyond knowledge and understanding, an attitude of acceptance is fostered by the realization that cultures do not revolve around "right" and "wrong" ways of doing things, but

rather arise as answers to felt needs within specific circumstances. The Kluckhohn Model helps to foster this broadminded attitude. So too does a lesser known schema developed by Bohdan Hawrylyshyn (Figure 3). In Road Maps to the Future, Hawrylyshyn presents a framework for assessing the effectiveness of societies by examining how well the values, government, and economy of a society work together to meet that society's needs, arguing persuasively that "the nature of societal order is the key determinant of societal effectiveness."[12] Combining this framework with Hawrylyshyn's correlary chart, Components of Societal Order (modified here in Figure 4), promotes a pragmatic, relatively unbiased examination of social effectiveness, encouraging pre-departure American personnel to consider that what works within the American framework of values, politics, and economics will be unlikely to transfer unchanged and maintain its effectiveness in the new environment. Viewing another society's systems from the perspective of overall effectiveness can bring the target culture new respect from the results-oriented business person, softening the American tendency to equate technological superiority with cultural superiority and encouraging empathy. Similarly, a discussion of the components of American societal order today and how that order might evolve toward maximum effectiveness could reinforce the notion that societies are not static and that American

managers or technical advisors should not cling to certain systems or values when changing situations require new approaches. Several examples from within the corporate culture of changing products to meet changing markets should help dispel the notion that even a slight alteration of long-held American cultural values is somehow unpatriotic or even immoral.

In the seminar presentation of Hawrylyshyn's outlines, as with the Kluckhohn model, participants (working individually or in small groups) mark the "Components" chart to indicate their understanding of the society's values, government, and economy, adjust their theories after listening to a short lecture, predict where cultures may clash, consider remedies, and also discuss how ~~their own~~ the American presence (in technology transfer, for example) may affect the social structure, perhaps even theorizing future directions for optimal effectiveness. Such musings highlight the complex interpersonal and socio-political ramifications of "just doing a job."

Interspersed with the knowledge and attitude portions of the workshop, participants need to practice the requisite skills for successful transfer of training. Knowledge and understanding are not enough. As H. Ned Seelye points out,

"Were culture seen simply as an adaptive tool, to use or discard as needed, then cultural change would not evoke the emotional trauma associated with its occurrence. But because [human culture], besides being pragmatically adaptive, also provides the vehicle for aesthetic and moral satisfaction, even minor changes sometimes evoke major crises by inducing anxiety in the gratification of the most subjective of basic needs, the psychological."[13]

Assessing and meeting psychological needs is indeed difficult. "What is patriotism," asks a Chinese proverb, "but love of the foods we ate in childhood!" Thus apple-pie Americans in San Francisco (who are not themselves vegetarians) react strongly when their Southeast Asian neighbors eat unwanted dogs, for example,[14] and New Yorkers express dismay when other fresh-off-the-boat immigrants plan to catch a few Central Park pigeons for supper, while Southeast Asians in their homelands, after receiving cheese from a hunger relief agency, express their gratitude for the gift of "soap," although it does not clean clothes very well, and refuse to eat more than small amounts of the disgusting stuff (even when they misconstrue it to be medicine) in part because if they happen to perspire after ingesting it, they smell like white people.

Since, as these examples show, "cultures define beauty and truth as ethnocentrically as any other topic,"[15], the trainer is obliged to deal with these emotional and psychological issues by providing exercises in values clarification and by structuring opportunities for experiential learning through critical incidents that provide the emotional experience of culture shock before trainees feel its full impact abroad and through structuring opportunities to practice the skills of observation (i.e., correctly interpreting the meanings of familiar cues that now trigger unfamiliar responses) and intercultural communication (i.e., interpreting and using both verbal and non-verbal cues). The Bafa Bafa simulation game available from Simile II has been widely used to facilitate cross-cultural adjustment, and many of SIETAR's publications outline effective skills-building exercises (see appendix). The point is that no matter how thought-provoking the lecture, information alone is insufficient for a successful cross-cultural orientation. The empathy initiated by gaining information about the target culture (and developed through vicarious experiences in the workshop) serves merely as the starting point for acquiring communication and coping skills.

Instead of beginning a workshop with information, however, an initial cross-cultural exercise can increase the

relevance of the material to come and heighten participants' motivation. One such exercise is the survival scenario in which participants are divided into four groups, each with a different plane-wreck scenario (desert, island, mountain, or jungle) and required to work together to develop social strategies for meeting life's basic needs within the given environment. When the groups mingle again after having been separated, members are startled by the degree of loyalty they have developed toward their created culture and at how quick thay are to ridicule the cultural solutions of the other groups. The insights gained in this "culture general" exercise seem to foster a more open-minded approach to "culture specific" information and exercises in the remainder of the workshop.

Another effective way to circumvent a self-reference criterion of evaluation is to use video tapes of brief interactions between fellow Americans and persons of the target culture. At certain planned junctures, the tape is stopped for discussion of the confusing situation that the Americans find themselves in, and the trainees offer suggestions as to the reasons for the foreigner's strange behavior. Ideally, the audience comes to realize that the "foreign" behavior is appropriate in its environment, that certain values underlie American perceptions and actions, that

these mainstream values are present in our own personality and behavior, and that the American misinterpretation of values and cues causes the miscommunication. These are significant perceptions, for it can be frightening to realize how much of our unique individuality is culturally conditioned and humbling to see ourselves as bothersome intruders. After viewing the tapes, participants practice communicating brief messages within the system of the target culture. If possible, participants could talk to a host national while being videotaped, view the interaction to critique it, then hold another conversation employing an improved communication style. At the very least, participants need to read and discuss sample conversations illustrating intercultural misunderstanding (perhaps in the Cultural Assimilator format), then practice appropriate responses to unfamiliar verbal stimuli.

The last general area of competence, and the most difficult to influence, is behavior. Even with knowledge of the target culture, with a tolerant attitude toward its people and customs, and with basic coping skills, no guarantee exists that intercultural behavior will be effective. Certainly, by emphasizing awareness and deliberate choice, cross-cultural training aims to expand the trainee's range of behavioral options, to increase one's versatility without forcing the

person into an uncomfortable or even repugnant mold. It provides the trainee with the basic awareness necessary to avoid the worst gaffes and offers tools for learning how to learn. In the presence of basic human good will and curiosity, these tools can be learned and successfully used.

Regarding proper and improper behaviors in a certain culture, clients may ask for a list of "do's and don'ts." While it is safe to devise a general list of familiar behaviors to avoid (e.g., asking a Saudi male about his wife's health, patting an Indonesian child on the head, using a handkerchief to blow one's nose in public in China) and new behaviors to add to one's reportoire (e.g., eating with chopsticks in China or with a tortilla in Mexico, bowing in Japan), such lists should be viewed as general guidelines, as starting points in the on-going process of developing coping strategies tailored to specific situations and to specific persons within the context of the sojourner's developing awareness of life in another culture. During the training itself, then, transfer of training to the real world can be facilitated not by spoon-feeding information but by providing experiences that simulate the new environment and the emotions attendant with culture shock.

AFTER TRAINING

The immediate evaluation of the training's effectiveness can be an on-going part of the workshop through the use of checklists, as in the suggested presentation of the Kluckhohn model above. If a prepared questionnaire is used, time must be allowed for participants to fill it out and return it immediately, because, in the rush of preparation for departure, this is one checklist that will all too easily be forgotten.

A consultant's job does not end when the last trainee leaves the room; this fact is yet another distinction between classroom teaching and corporate training. After an academic semester is over, the professor's obligation to the students largely ceases; a few students continue to drop by favored sages' offices from time to time, but the majority probably forget the instructor's name shortly after turning in the final exam. Thus, faculty members are unaccustomed to the kind of long-term follow-up that is important in a business venture. Precisely because follow-up is important to the continuing adjustment of the overseas worker, because little research has been done in this area of cross-cultural training, and because measurable results are vital to proving and improving the quality of cross-cultural training, increased committment to testing in this area is desirable, as is the effort to contact workshop attendees through questionnaires that assess their

knowledge about the host culture, their attitudes, and, perhaps most importantly, that most underevaluated component — their behavior.

CONCLUSION

A pre-departure cross-cultural orientation workshop must meet the practical needs of the participants for information and skills while also influencing attitude in an attempt to foster effective behavior when in the target culture. The aim throughout these workshops should be not so much to close gaps, but to work with them and in them to increase the individual's reportoire of effective coping behaviors for a diverse world. The ultimate importance of this endeavor is made clear by Seelye when he says, "In homo sapiens, it is man's culture — not his genes — that evolves to meet the exigencies of changing life conditions. Culture is the principal adaptive mechanism humans use to cope with life's circumstances. . . .In mankind there are subcultures, not biological subspecies, that provide the wherewithal to help man adapt to his environment."[16] Today ESL and foreign language instruction is acquiring new relevance as academics adapt to changing circumstances by moving into the corporate world, following Confucius' dictum, "find a need and fill it."

Consultant's Primer p. 21

NOTES

[1]Robert T. Moran and Philip R. Harris, Managing Cultural Synergy (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1982), p. xii.

[2]Orville L. Freeman, Forward, Managing Cultural Synergy, p. xi.

[3]Richard W. Brislin and Paul Pedersen, Cross-Cultural Orientation Programs (New York: Gardner Press, 1976), p. 6 and Pierre Casse, Training for the Cross-Cultural Mind (Washington, DC: SIETAR, 1981), p. 224.

[4]E. T. Hall, Beyond Culture (Garden City: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1976), p. 195.

[5]Casse, p. 256.

[6]Leonard D. Goodstein, quoted in Stacey E. Palmer, "Teaching Corporate Students," Chronicle of Higher Education, vol. 8, no. 5, Oct. 19, 1983.

[7]Brislin and Pedersen, p. 185.

[8]Palmer (See Note 6).

[9]K. Oberg, "Culture Shock: Adjustment to New Cultural Environments," Practical Anthropology, vol. 7, 1960, p. 177-82 and H. Douglas Brown, Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1980), p. 132.

[10]L. Robert Kohls, Survival Kit for Overseas Living

(Chicago: Intercultural Press, Inc., 1979), p. 25.

[11]Louise Damen, "Reading, Writing, and Culture Shock," Cross Currents, vol. x, no. 2, Fall 1983, p. 56.

[12]Bohdan Hawrylyshyn, Road Maps to the Future (New York: Pergamon Press, 1980), p.3.

[13]H. Ned Seelye, Teaching Culture (Lincolnwood, Illinois: National Textbook Company, 1984), p. 197.

[14]Seelye, p. 198.

[15]Seelye, p. 198.

[16]Seelye, p. 197.

APPENDIX

Suggested Readings

Brislin, Richard W. and Paul Pedersen, Cross-Cultural Orientation Programs. New York: Gardner Press, 1976.

Casse, Pierre, Training for the Cross-Cultural Mind. Washington, D.C.: The Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research, 1981.

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Pusch, Margaret D., Multicultural Education: A Cross-Cultural Training Approach. Chicago: Intercultural Press, 1981.

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Weeks, William H., Paul B. Pedersen, and Richard W. Brislin, A Manual of Structured Experiences for Cross-Cultural Learning. Washington, D.C.: The Society for Intercultural Education, Training, and Research, 1979.

Professional Organizations

American Management Association International

135 W. 50th St.

New York, New York 10020

American Society for Training and Development, International Division

600 Maryland Avenue S.W., Suite 305

Washington, D.C. 20024

Center for Research and Education

1800 Pontiac St.

Denver, Colorado 80220

International Communication Agency

1776 Pennsylvania Ave., NW

Washington, D.C. 20547

National University Continuing Education Association

One Dupont Circle

Washington, D.C. 20036

International Society for Intercultural Education, Training, and Research (SIETAR International)

1414 Twenty-second Street, NW - Suite 102

Washington, D.C. 20037

Resources

The Intercultural Press, Inc.

P.O. Box 768

Yarmouth, Maine 04096

Simile II

218 Twelfth Street

P.O. Box 910

Del Mar, California 92014

Before Training

* Assess needs
* Gather data on assumptions
* Set up goals
* Anticipate problems
  - attitudes
  - location
  - time
* Decide on
  - content
  - sequence
  - training methods

During Training

* Provide transfer from training to real world
* Provide social support to individuals

After Training

* Evaluate effectiveness
  - immediate
  - long term
* Replicate major findings
* Provide follow-up training

Figure 1. Structuring a Cross-Cultural Training Workshop (from Brislin & Pedersen and Casse)

ORIENTATION:	BELIEFS AND BEHAVIORS:		
HUMAN NATURE	Basically evil	Mixture of good & evil	Basically good
RELATIONSHIP OF MAN TO NATURE	Humans subjugated by nature	Humans in harmony with nature	Humans the master of nature
SENSE OF TIME	Past-oriented	Present-oriented	Future-oriented
ACTIVITY	Being (who)	Growing (how)	Doing (what)
SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS	Authoritarian	Group-oriented	Individualistic oriented

Figure 2. The Kluckhohn Model
(from Kohls, p. 23)

I

Determinants of Effectiveness

SOCIAL	POLITICAL	ECONOMIC
*Aspirations	*Nature of Authority	*Resources
*Realizations	*Its use	*Will to work
*Relationships	*Its acceptability	*Know-how
		*Investments
Rooted in	Reflected in form of	Conditioned by
VALUES	GOVERNANCE	ECONOMIC SYSTEM

II

Conditions of Effectiveness

*Compatability between components

*Compatability with external environment

I + II = Nature of Societal Order

Figure 3. Effectiveness of Societies

(from Hawrylyshyn)

I. VALUES	II. POLITICAL GOVERNANCE	III. ECONOMIC SYSTEM
1. Individualistic-competitive	1. Countervailing	1. Free enterprise
2. Group-cooperative	2. Shared-consensual	2. Concerted free enterprise
3. Egalitarian-collectivist	3. Unitary	3. Command-State enterprise

Figure 4. Components of Societal Order